DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 084 462 CG 008 205

TITLE Suggested Curriculum Drug Abuse Education.
INSTITUTION Cooperative Educational Service Agency 8, Appleton, Wis.
PUB DATE 72
NOTE 207p.

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.65 HC-$9.87
DESCRIPTORS *Behavior Change; *Curriculum Guides; *Drug Education; Group Dynamics; *Health Programs; Individual Development; Information Dissemination; Leadership Training; Learning Activities; *Personal Values

ABSTRACT

This extensive, coded curriculum guide is based on the premise that a "people problem," not a "drug problem," exists in our schools. Activities are arranged so classroom interaction can take place with minimal teacher control. To help the teacher in his role, a booklet on group communication exercises has been prepared that can be used in coordinating these class activities. A communication exercises which this staff felt would be appropriate for use in conjunction with a particular learning activity is suggested in the course study but need not be followed. Each teacher can best judge his or her own situation and is better prepared to make an appropriate choice of exercise. Not all of the classroom activities have accompanying communication exercise suggestions. Hopefully, as a teacher becomes more relaxed in his role he will begin to incorporate some of his own ideas into exercises. This drug education program spans all grade levels from the primary grades through the late adolescent years, and stresses not only drug information, but personal health, self-awareness, trust and respect. (Author)

FILMED FROM BEST AVAILABLE COPY

CG

ED 084462

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO
DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM
THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGIN
ATING IT POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRE
SENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

SUGGESTED CURRICULUM
DRUG ABUSE EDUCATION

ESEA - Title III
Project #0134

Cooperative Educational Service Agency #8
107 North Douglas Street
Appleton, Wisconsin 54911

CG 008 205

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Introduction

Primary Years

Objectives 1
Learning Activities 1-2
Outcomes 2

Lower Elementary Years

Objectives 3
Learning Activities 3-6
Outcomes 7

Middle Elementary Years

Objectives 8
Learning Activities 8-13
Outcomes 13-14

Early Adolescent Years

Objectives 15
Learning Activities 15-20
Outcomes 21

Late Adolescent Years

Objectives 22
Learning Activities 22-27
Outcomes 27-28

INTRODUCTION

The following suggested study is based on the premise that a "people problem," not a "drug problem," exists in our schools. The activities are arranged so classroom interaction can take place with minimal teacher control. It is hoped that the teacher's role will be one of initiator or facilitator during these sessions.

To help the teacher in his role, a booklet on group communication exercises has been prepared that can be used in coordinating these class activities. A communication exercise which this staff felt would be appropriate for use in conjunction with a particular learning activity is suggested in the course study but need not be followed. Each teacher can best judge his or her own situation and is better prepared to make an appropriate choice of exercise. Not all of the classroom activities have accompanying communication exercise suggestions. Hopefully, as a teacher becomes more relaxed in his role he will begin to incorporate some of his own ideas into exercises.

PRIMARY YEARS

See Value Clarification (Section H)

Objectives

A. To be able to list verbally a number of important reasons for protecting his health.

B. To be able to demonstrate personal responsibility for protecting his health by practicing proper health habits in the classroom.

C. To be able to demonstrate personal ability to help others by giving proper advice when confronted with a request for help.

D. To be able to distinguish differences between food and non-food substances by naming some of each.

E. To be able to name several types of people in his community who work to preserve and enhance the quality of his health.

F. To be able to demonstrate an understanding on non-food substances that are healthful when they are properly used, by giving examples.

G. To be able to arrange and describe dangers of non-food substances and how to store them properly.

Learning Activities

(Do Handbook Section D - Self awareness)

- Children should be given regular opportunity to talk about things that make them happy, sad, etc. This can be done on a "best friend basis" or arbitrarily pairing off. As they develop ability to express themselves and lessen some of their inhibitions, grouping can become larger.
- Emphasis must be based upon successes.
- Role playing: What should be done if confronted by a stranger? (Handbook, Section N.)
- Role playing: What should be done if strangers offer something to eat? (Handbook, Section N.)
- Sketch, color, cut out and display safety signs.
- Have children keep individual weekly height and weight charts and periodically compare changes.

- Divide children into pairs. Talk about things that are good to eat, healthy to eat, safe to eat. Bring together in quads and repeat. Bring together in octos and repeat. Have children repeat what speaker has said. (Listening, Section I)

- Sketch, color, cut out and display reproductions of common poisonous plants.

- Allow students to draw pictures of healthy people engaged in recreational or work activity. Divide children into pairs, quads, octos to explain why those people can engage in the activities drawn.

- Role play commercials on television.

- Have children listen to prepared tapes and repeat (Listening - Handbook Section I)

- Use variety of instructional strategies: brainstorming (Handbook, Section O) buzz sessions, case study demonstrations, (Handbook, Section N_2) discussion, group procedure (Handbook, Section G), incident process, show and share, problem solving, question-answer, role playing.

- Sketch, color, cut out and display foods common to each of the basic four food groups.

- Plan a field trip to a near-by pharmacy.

- Discuss reasons for taking medicines
    - a) only from parents
    - b) only when prescribed by doctor
    - c) only while ill

- Discuss the value of food such as potato chips, candy, popcorn, coke etc.

- Discuss the dangers of keeping old medicines.

Outcomes

- The learner will not take medicine or unknown substances into his body unless directed by a parent or doctor.

- The learner will report immediately to parent, teacher or other responsible adult any feelings of illness after ingesting any food or non-food substances.

- The learner will not accept favors of any type from strangers.

LOWER ELEMENTARY YEARS

See Value Clarification (Section H)

Objectives

A. To know and understand that drug products, household substances, and environmental factors affect health.

B. To make wise decisions and choices that contribute to good health.

C. To recognize that health can be affected by many factors.

Learning Activities

- Use a variety of instructional strategies: brainstorming (Handbook, Section O) buzz sessions, case study demonstrations (Handbook, Section N_2) dicussion,group procedure (Handbook, Section F and G), incident process, show and share problem solving, question - answer, role playing.
- Children should be given regular opportunity to talk about things that make them happy, sad, etc. This can be done on a "best friend" basis or arbitrarily pairing off. As they develop the ability to express themselves and some of their inhibitions begin to disappear, grouping can become larger.
- Emphasis must be based upon successes.
- Have students relate personal experiences with the substances listed under content and discuss the purpose and effect of each. Explain how some substances may have both good and bad effects.
- Collect pictures showing people affected by various conditions and substances; match each picture with its appropriate effect. (Begin group by using Section F of the Handbook)
- Demonstrate how substances affect the skin: lotions moisten and lubricate; powder dries the skin.
- Role play activities which contribute to family's good health. (Handbook, Section N.)
- Role play situation in which child in family becomes ill. Who administers medicine? (Handbook, Section N.)
- Have students compile their own personal "safety book".
- Dramatize an imaginary visit to the doctor's office; have the"doctor" explain the use of his instruments.

- Have the child "interview" his parents and list medicines he has taken and the conditions for which they were used.

- Have the children discuss immunizations they have had. Discuss their feelings and the reasons for them.

- Periodically students should be involved in exercises from Handbook, Sections B and D.

- Have the teacher, nurse, or pharmacist explain the difference between prescription and nonprescription medicines and show samples of each (when appropriate).

- Ask the children who gives them medicine when they are ill. List names of persons on chalkboard and discuss why they are qualified to give medicine. (Handbook, Sections K and M)

- Discuss medical folklore (old catalogs?)

- Discuss ways to dispose properly of old medicines and containers.

- Discuss and role play TV advertisements related to drugs or medicine.

- Ask children to tell where medicine is stored in their homes. List places on chalkboard. Determine the best storage areas.

- Develop a letter to parents suggesting safe ways both to store and to dispose of medicine.

- Have children make a collage using magazine advertisements (Section E of Handbook).

- Ask children where and how their mothers store cleaning products: how they are kept away from young children and pets.

- Plan an art lesson in which children draw pictures of containers of poisonous products. Use the pictures to emphasize the importance of following the directions for use printed on the containers. (Handbook, Section I)

- Allow students to draw pictures of people involved in recreational activities. Discuss degree of physical health required for participation in each activity.

- Introduce sign of skull and cross bones.

- Identify markings of labels on containers which indicate that the contents are poisonous if improperly used, e.g., "caution", "warning", etc.

- Have students ask their parents to conduct an inventory of medicines and poisonous substances kept in the home. Report to class. Discuss the possible dangers.

- Show pupils samples of warnings on containers and explain their meaning.

- Ask the school nurse to tell where the nearest poison control center is located and what it does.

- Role play how to telephone for emergency help giving vital information.

- Ask children to describe the medicines which are attractive to them and why. Emphasize the dangers of taste appeal in medicines, explaining why some medicines are made attractive and good tasting.

- (Handbook, Section I. Listening)

- Have children list items they should not play with, e.g., razor blades, matches, plastic laundry bags, gasoline, discarded iceboxes, and fireworks. Explain why. Show pictures of poisonous plants and differentiate these from non-poisonous ones.

- Ask children to describe experiences with poisonous plants.

- Discuss how allergies affect individuals. Ask children to relate their experiences with friends and relatives who have allergies.

- Discuss how to avoid contaminated substances, e.g. swim only in certified pools; do not play near garbage cans or dumps.

- Nourish a plant with improper food (salt water) and allow students to witness results.

- At regular intervals during the unit refer to Handbook, Section J, (Feedback) Minimum of once per week.

- Have children collect advertisements for health products and evaluate them.

- Discuss other advertising media: television, radio, billboards, etc.

- Dramatize making wise choices: e.g., when buying food, selecting toys, choosing clothing suitable for the weather, etc. (Handbook, Section H, Value Clarification)

- Have children discuss the things they do and say because their friends do. (Handbook, Section, B, E, L, M and N)

- (Handbook, Section N.)

- Dramatize how to get help for a friend who becomes ill while away from adult supervision.

- Role play how to answer friends who insist that attractive, unknown substances be used. Discuss dangers of experimenting "for fun". (Handbook, Section L. Leadership)

- Role play what to do if a stranger tries to be friendly. (Handbook, Section E, Perception).

- Ask children to compare activities of a person in good health with one who is ill. (Section N_2)

- Ask children to bring cutouts from magazines that show examples of people in good and poor health. Build an exhibit.

- Role play how children should respond to failure and disappointment. (Handbook, Sections B,D, E)

- Invite policeman to visit with children. If possible, have him appear both in and out of uniform.

- Role play the safe procedures to follow if the students unexpectedly find candy, fruit, or unknown substances in a public place.

- Examine a milk carton for signs of protective regulations, e.g., pasteurized and graded contents.

- Discuss why boys and girls experience good and bad moods. List different moods on chalkboard and have students dramatize them. Explain why failure and anxiety in normal amounts can provide motivation to do one's best. (Section K)

- Ask children how they protect their health; how their parents protect their health.

- Invite the school nurse to discuss how specialists protect health.

- Have children make a collection of pictures that show how people protect the health of others. Have children tell stories that explain the pictures.

- Trust exercise see Section B, Art, by Sid Simon

Ask children to relate their experiences in a hospital: who helped them while they were in the hospital and what they did.

- Discuss the importance of regular medical care as a safeguard to health, e.g. in case of respiratory illness, skin problems, nutritional diseases, etc.

- Role play Section N (all exercies)
  Role play how children can help others.

- Suggest sending greetings to shut-ins, home-bound pupils, etc.

Outcomes

- Students will be able to identify dangerous substances in the house.
- Students will be able to identify substances (drugs) which contribute to family health.
- Students will be more able to freely present opinions regarding drug advertisements.
- Students will be able to demonstrate ability to appropriately handle emergencies through use of telephone.
- Students will improve in ability to make rational decisions given alternatives to a problem situation.
- Students will have greater appreciation and understanding of their needs and the needs of others.

MIDDLE ELEMENTARY YEARS

See Value Clarification (Section H)

Objectives

A. To know that drugs come from several sources. To appreciate their long history of use.

B. To understand the difference between prescription and nonprescription medicines.

C. To recognize that drugs as medicines have many uses, along with a potential for producing both good and bad effects.

D. To know that many widely used substances contain drugs.

E. To know that misused medicines, drugs, and other agents may have serious effects on the individual.

F. To identify common household products and to use them for their intended purposes.

G. To assume increasing responsibility for personal health.

H. To understand and appreciate the relationship of drugs to toal health.

Learning Activities

Self Awareness - Section D
Perception-Section E.
Listening exercise - Section I
Cooperation - Section K

- Write to Parke, Davis and Co., for pictures of "Events of Medical History."
- Read and discuss stories about discoveries of important drugs, e.g., penicillin by Alexander Fleming; Salvarsan by Ehrlich. Study treatment of malaria with quinine and tuberculosis with Isoniazid.
- Suggest written, oral and/or small group projects regarding lives of health scientists.
- Use 2-4-8 "Structural Human Relations Exercises"
  Have children discuss the reasons why they go to a doctor and why he prescribes medicine for them.

- Discuss information included on a doctor's prescription, e.g., name and adress of patient; name of medication; amount and dosage form to be dispensed; directions to the patient; number of refills (if any)' written signature of the doctor; and date of prescription. Discuss why a second person, the pharmacist, is important in the use of prescription drugs.

- Collect and show labels from prescription and nonprescription medicines.

- Ask children to list nonprescription medicines commonly found in their home.

- Have children ask their parents for what illnesses they commonly use nonprescription medicines.

- Discuss why some medicines are classified as prescription and others as nonprescription drugs.

- Student teams develop advertisements for a fictional brand of health product such as tooth paste and present it to the class. Class members decide which brand they would buy and discuss reasons for choices. Section G

- Tape T.V. and radio commercials and evaluate in class.

- Have children count the number and kind of different ads for nonprescription medicines on radio and television, and in magazines and newspapers. Clip ads from papers and magazines; bring to class to discuss and evaluate according to advertising claims, implied meaning, and promotional techniques. (Section on Valuing, H)

- Discuss how vaccines virtually have eliminated certain communicable diseases in the United States; smallpox, poliomyelitis, diptheria. Explain how others can be eliminated, e.g., measles.

- Collect recent news articles that describe advances in medical science made possible by the use of drugs.

- Discuss how the same drug may affect different people differently, and the same people differently at different times.

- Students and teacher prepare a display table containing empty labeled containers of drugs and hazardous substances.

- Discuss the meanings of abstinence, social drinking, drinking in moderation, intoxication, and alcoholism.
  Handbook, (Section H, Value Clarification)

- Role play the difficulties an intoxicated person would have in unlocking a door, tying his shoes, and writing his name. Discuss what is incapacitating him and why.
  (Handbook, Sections E, M, N)
- Discuss the difficulties of breaking the habit of smoking.
  (Section C, on Change)
- Conduct a class debate on the question: "To smoke or not to smoke?"
- Discuss how smoke affects the non-smoker; environmental problems caused by smokers, e.g., fires, pollution.
- Compute the annual cost of cigarettes for one who smokes a pack per day.
- Have students prepare small newspaper for parents explaining current facts about drugs.
- Discuss the many aspects of drug misuse: physiological, mental, legal, social and economic.
- Have children describe how their friends affect their ways.
  (Handbook, Sections D, E)
- Role play how to cope with pressure from friends who insist that others use drugs.
  (Handbook, Sections B, D, E, L, M)
- Suggest listing of health problems that may result from drug misuse.
- Describe ways of satisfying curiosity.
  (SectionsD, J, & K)
- Discuss ways of facing disappointment, stress, and grief.
  (Sections D, J, & K)
- Show children the warning label on a harmful substance and teach its meaning.
- Study how the use of substances that kill insects can affect health.
- Have children describe safety precautions that should be observed to prevent accidental poisoning.
- Discuss the difference between use and misuse of products.

  Use, 2, 4, 8 and Listening Triads from "Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training."
- Teach elementary procedures in first aid.
- Have children develop a list of responsibilities for health which they can assume.

- Discuss how present health habits will affect health in later years.

- Have children write a story about what they wish to do when they have grown.
  (Handbook Section H, Use various exercises)

- Ask a group of children to discuss the question, "How easy is it to say 'No'?" On what occasions is it difficult to say "No"?

- Have students discuss alternatives to taking unprescribed drugs.
  (Headaches, fatigue, insomnia, etc.)

- Have students identify some of their own habits. Which of these are they happy with? Which of these are they unhappy with? Is it easier to form new habits or break existing habits?

- Discuss (1) how poor health habits affect health problems, (2) how health problems affect social behavior.

- Interview interested parent who either smokes presently or has smoked in the past.
  (Use Sections, D, G, J, in Handbook)

- Have students write to the following for information about their services:

  (1) Food and Drug Administration;
  (2) U.S. Department of Agriculture;
  (3) U.S. Department of Justice;
  (4) National Institutes of Mental Health

- Suggest students explore community resources that give help to people with drug problems.

- Have students create stories (written or oral) regarding situations in which it is difficult to say "no".

- Discuss the relationship of physical, emotional, social, and intellectual development to health.

- Ask children to discuss what they do when they feel lonely; are by themselves; lose a contest; are unhappy, angry, afraid
  (Section, D)

- Have children write a paper on how friends influence their choice of activities.

- Discuss with children the effect of knowledge upon social, physical, and emotional health.

- Ask children to role play ways to help their friends, their parents. Draw pictures to illustrate (Section, N)

- List and evaluate methods of coping with daily problems.

- Have children discuss information they have learned that will help them protect their health.

- Develop and encourage self-understanding and awareness as well as improve knowledge of interpersonal relationships.

- Have children list those things they do when happy.

- Share stories and poems to create different moods. (Section, M)

Use Handbook, Section J, Feedback, periodically. Suggest minimal, once a week.

- List qualities people look for in a friend. Discuss ways in which these qualities might be developed.

- Discuss difference between arguing in anger and expressing an opinion.

- Compile list of those factors students think are responsible for effective group membership. (Section, D, G.)

- Discuss feelings of self worth, how they are achieved, and how they affect your behavior. (Section, D, G.)

- List qualities which describe a desirable personality. (Section, D, G.)

- Discuss friendship; what characteristics describe your best friend? (Section D, G.)

- Have students dramatize how people react to frustration, anxiety and problem situations. (Withdrawal, rationalization, regression, suppression, compromising, confronting, attacking etc.) (Section, N)

- List 5 things people say which you like to hear. Which are most easily said? Which are the most difficult to say? List may or may not be shared in the classroom, as individuals desire.

- Have small groups develop list of questions most pressing in their lives. If these are answerable, resource people can be invited in to deal with the.
  (See small group activities)

- Discuss and compare students ethnic religious and social customs relative to the use of drugs, alcohol and tobacco.

Small group discussion questions:

- Why is it often difficult to do what we believe is right, even if we want to do so?

- Why do some people hesitate to take a stand on what they know is right?

- How do our friends, older boys and girls influence our decisions?

- If there are conflicts between people in beliefs, how can these conflicts be resolved?

Discuss the concept of responsibility.

Discuss concept of self-respect.

(See SRA Awareness Kit! !)

- Discuss "missionary zeal" of some who believe that the use of illegal drugs is desirable; undesirable.

- Discuss to what extent parents should make decisions for students.

- Discuss the difference between children and adults. Do children sometimes behave in adult-like ways? Do adults sometimes behave in child-like ways?

All of the above discussion questions are advisable o[illegible]fter the class has become a group and the teacher has involved the class with exercises from section G, K, and M.

Outcomes

- Students will be aware of some contributions of science to medical practice.

- Students will recognize basic differences between prescription and nonprescription drugs.

- Students will be able to evaluate drug advertising in the various media and be able to identify some fundamentals of false advertising.

- Students will be able to identify symptoms of alcohol and tobacco abuse and how they may differ from person to person.

- Students will be able to suggest ways of satisfying curiosity and coping with disappointments of stress.

- Students will be able to list ways in which they handle the minor physical aches in life than through nonprescription drugs.

- Students will be able to suggest ways to deal with physical, emotional, social, and intellectual problems of this age group.

- Students will be able to more freely discuss their emotions and relationships with their peers and older people in working out their own fears of group involvement.

- Students will be able to list those qualities of personality and friendship they look for in a friend and would want friends to look for in them.

- Students will be able to identify those problems in their lives that they think group involvement would have helped them with.

- Students will compare the influence of their peers and the influence of adults on their lives.

- Students will be more aware of the conflicts in life caused by religious, ethnic, and social customs.

- Students will be able to distinguish between acceptable and non-acceptable problem solving approaches.

- Students will be able to identify ways in which health affects physical and mental growth, social development, and peer relationships.

- Students will be aware of local, state, and federal agencies that contribute to our standard of health.

EARLY ADOLESCENT YEARS

(See Value Clarification, Section H)

Objectives

A. To realize that behavior patterns influence present and future health.

B. To know and appreciate that progress in medicine has helped man to live longer and more comfortably.

C. To understand that the legitimate use of drugs and other substances is widespread.

D. To know that drugs are classified according to their pharmacologic action.

E. To know that drug products and chemical substances, when misused, can cause serious problems, even permanent damage.

F. To understand that people misuse drugs for many reasons.

G. To recognize that health should be safeguarded throughout life; to develop practices that will protect and preserve health.

H. Develop and encourage self-understanding and awareness as well as improve knowledge of interpersonal relationships.

Learning Activities

- Discuss assuming responsibility for personal behavior.
- Discuss how to cope with minor aches and pains. How would a young person's opinion differ from that of his parents?
- Discuss why students like their best friends. What characteristics are most disagreeable? Most agreeable? (Section, J.)
- Establish a question box to promote communication and check regularly.
- Identify personal habits that students would like to change. (Section, J)
- Ask students to discuss habits they have tried to break; the success they had. (Secion, J)

- Have students identify how decisions are made.
- Identify habits that affect physical, mental, and emotional health.
- Consider the question, "What would my family be like if every member engaged in behavior that I think is right for me?" (Handbook, Sections B, D,E,G,H,K,M, Use 2,4,8 and Listening Diad and Triad as vehicle)
- Organize student groups to discuss feelings of loneliness, isolation, worthlessness, and anger.
- Have students evaluate the impact of peer acceptance upon behavior, choices, etc.
- Discuss how individuals differ -
    A. Give a vocabulary word i.e., courage, success, freedom.

    Have students define word on paper then verbally compare definitions and perceptions.

  (Section E)
- "Fish bowl" experience where a number of students discuss "If I were 21 the laws I would vote to change would be ...." (Section G)
- Write to the World Health Organization for information about countries with high rates of common communicable disease.
- Have students compare frequency of poliomyelitis cases prior to, and following, the discovery of polio vaccine. Review story of Jonas Salk.
- Compare surgery before and after the use of modern anesthetics.
- List situations in which, on the advice of a physician, the use of psychotropic (mind-altering) medications is justifiable.

  Describe ways to overcome emotional problems without the use of drugs.
- Have class collect current magazine and newspaper articles on progress in medical research. Develop a resource file.
- Make a collage on household poison, "over-the-counter" drugs, or prescription drugs. (Section D & E)
- Discuss the effects of excessive use of caffeine.
- Direct class discussion on the question, "If alcohol is a dangerous drug, why does it not require a prescription to purchase it?"

- On the question, "If alcohol were discovered today, do you think it would be widely available?" Have pupils support their answers with research.
  (Section I)

- Have students collect clippings on current accidents. Analyze their causes.

- Have students investigate different drug classifications.

- Ask class to identify when people might misuse amphetamines and why.
  (Handbook, Section D, Self Awareness)

- Invite police officer to demonstrate the breathalyzer.

- Discuss the effects of dependence: impairment of ability to work, cost of the drugs, developing of nutritional diseases, and promotion of mental and physical deterioration.

- Suggest special reports on black market trade of opium to the United States from other countries.

- Discuss slang terms frequently used by young people. Add to the list, the terms used in your community.

- Discuss some of the problems encountered by a person addicted to the use of opiates: physiological, legal, financial, familial.

- Have students create art work representing their perceptions of illusionogenic substances. Students may present and discuss their work with the class.
  (Section E,H,M)

- Ask students to discuss why using marijuana seems to be popular.
  (Section D & E)

- Conduct a class discussion on why some young people misuse products that obviously may be dangerous.
  (Start with 2,4,8 and work every 10' to larger group)

- Have students prepare small newspaper for parents explaining current facts about drugs.

- Have students evaluate the statement, "Drugs are not bad; it is the way they are used that causes problems."
  (Handbook, Section H, Value Clarification)

- Explain how two drugs can accidentally work together to produce harmful results.

- Have students identify common skills that could be impaired by the use of drugs.
  (Section on group testing)

- Write to the National Safety Council for facts about accidents caused by the use of drugs.

- Role play the arguments that a pusher might use to sell his products.
  (Handbook, Section N. role playing)

- Discuss the social and legal implications of association with a dealer or pusher.

- Discuss the rights lost when a person is convicted on a felony; right to vote; ineligibility for medical and law school, etc.

- Allow pupils to write articles for the school paper on why they think young people experiment with drugs.

- Plan with students a series of evening meetings that will provide opportunities for dialogue between parents and pupils. Allow pupils to plan and implement the program, whenever possible. Include open-ended situations which will allow frank discussion. Some subjects to be studied might be: student conflict, alienation and unrest, social injustice, drug abuse etc.
  (Section K & L)

- Have class investigate drug laws that protect the consumer:

  (1) Harrison Narcotic Act and subsequent amendments.
  (2) Pure Food and Drug Act and amendments.
  (3) Marihuana Tax Act.
  (4) Since 1968, Federal laws pertaining to drug control are administered by the Bureau of Narcotics and Dangerous Drugs, U.S. Department of Justice.
  (5) State drug laws.
  (6) Local ordinances.

- Write the U.S. Customs Bureau, Washington 21, D.C.

- Role play "How would you want your parents to react if they discovered you were using drugs?"
  (Handbook, Section K and M)

- Conduct a class discussion on how young people can better communicate their feelings when they need help.

- Survey the community for local centers for treatment and rehabilitation. Report on services available.

- Discuss and role play the question "What would you do if you found out your best friend was using drugs? Report it? Keep it to yourself and try to help? Why? How?"

- Conduct a court case: Students select topic and set up defense and prosecution.
  Possible topics:
    - Black market trade
    - Marijuana penalties

- Have students chart a week s activities to determine the proportion of time spent in social and physical activities and in intellectual or aesthetic (artistic) pursuits.

- Problems for discussion:

  Discuss point of view of religious, cultural groups, and families about the use or non-use of alcoholic beverages, tobacco, and drugs. (Handbook, Section B,D,E,G,I,K,M,N)
  Conduct Handbook Section J periodically. Suggest once a week.

- Have students prepare a list of recreational and social opportunities in the school and neighborhood. Teacher can type the list and return to students to rank-order them. Students may then develop ways in which existing activities may be modified or more added in order to better provide for their social and emotional growth. (Section G)

- Write an autobiography - include ways you think your family has influenced you to be as you are.

- Make a list of positive and negative traits and disucss how these can be used to develop an attractive personality. (Section M)

- Do the grades in achievement which we receive on our report cards always reflect our mental capabilities? Discuss.

- What are some characteristics of a physically fit person? (Section E)

- Discuss how physical activities can effect your mental attitude.

- Create a role playing situation in which a number of students demonstrate various responses to emotional situations
  See Handbook on role playing.

- Have students discuss how they feel physically when overwhelmed by emotions.
  (Cover Section D & M first)

- Role play.
  1. Dealing with adults.
  2. Introductions.
  3. How to handle criticism
  (Secion N)

- What are some of the factors which arise between parents and children to create problems?

- Have each student list the three most prevalent problems in their lives (personal or social). The list can be used in the following ways:

    1. Tabulate - use most frequently appearing items and brainstorm possible solutions.
    2. Compile list of all items mentioned. Have small groups rank these in order of significance to them as a group.
    3. Create role playing situations in which students may practice new ways of dealing with interpersonal problems.
    4. Etc.

    (Section D,G,K,M&N)

- Is a retreat ever a good solution to a problem? Give examples.

- List ways in which people may deceive (kid) themselves in order to meet some uncomfortable situation.

- Discuss what normal variations in different forms of behavior are, e.g. daydreaming, rationalizing, scapegoating, bullying.

- Discuss reason why adolescents would rather seek advice from friends and members of their peer groups than from their parents.

- Test your own system of values by completing the sentence: I believe that the three most important things in life are.........

- Discuss reasons why the price of illegal narcotics is so high.

- Do you feel that drug abuse should be treated as a crime or a sickness, or both?

- Panel discussion concerning factual reports on the effects of Marijuana.
  (Section G)

- If the booklet "Drugs, Facts on Their Use and Abuse"by Scott-Foreman and Company is available, use this in the classroom for good reference material on specific drugs.

- What alternatives would you suggest to the use of drugs?

- What are the consequences of being at a party where drugs are being used or in a car where drugs are found? How might this effect your whole life?

- If you discover that your brother or sister is experimenting with drugs, what would you do?
  (Section H)

Outcomes

- Students will be able to list ways of coping with personal behavioral changes and tell how they influence people around them.
- Students will be able to identify behavioral habits that affect the decision making process.
- Students will be able to more freely express thoughts on loneliness, isolation, worthlessness, and anger.
- Students will be able to openly express the need for peer acceptance and list ways this affects behavior.
- Students will be able to identify the role of drugs in today's medical world.
- Students will be able to openly discuss reasons for individual needs for alcohol, tobacco, and drugs.
- Students will be able to identify drugs according to classification and discuss the emotional change ffected.
- Students will be able to list narcotics and discuss the sale of them in Europe and the U.S.
- Students will be able to express their feelings on drugs and drug use in group interaction and individual works.
- Students will be able to better evaluate some of the motives of drug experimenters and drug pushers.
- Students will be able to list individual rights lost upon conviction of a drug felony charge.
- Students will be able to differentiate between drug laws that protect the consumer and those that protect individual rights of citizens.
- Students will show a better understanding of communication with parents, adults and peers as group interaction progresses.
- Students will be able to identify conflicts in life caused by religious, ethnic and social customs.
- Students will be able to relate value strategies and value clarification to their own value making process.
- Students will be able to better accept stresses brought about by physical and emotional change of this age group.
- Students will be able to list those personal positive responses that indicate emotional growth on his part.
- Students begin to develop a personally rational mode of social behaviorism.

LATE ADOLESCENT YEARS

(See Value Clarification, Section H)

Objectives

A. To understand the widespread use of drugs in modern living.

B. To know and appreciate that a healthy person usually does not need drugs as an aid to performing daily activities.

C. To recognize that drugs, when misused, cause serious problems.

D. To know and employ resources for protection against illegal and unwise use of drugs.

E. To realize that drug control is complicated by many factors and considerations.

F. To comprehend the need for qualified personnel in drug control.

G. To know that individual responsibility is an important factor in effective drug control.

Learning Activities

- Discuss the extent and danger of the use of tranquilizers, stimulants, depressants, and common non-prescription products.
- Discuss the term social acceptance. (Handbook, Sections B,D)
- Evaluate the social acceptance of alcoholic beverages. How important it is? How extensive?
- Explain why parents usually expect to leave the doctor's office with a prescription.
- Evaluate the importance of social acceptance as a motivator of drug use in comparison with the harmful effects of the drug used.
- Study the history of prohibition and evaluate reasons for the repeal of the Eighteenth Amendement.
- Discuss the success of anti-smoking efforts.
- Examine food containers to determine the amount and kinds of chemicals that are added to certain foods.

- Discuss constructive activities that may relieve tensions.

  Do stresses and tensions ever contribute to success? How? (Section F & G)

- Discuss class opinion of the importance of peer acceptance and what determines it
  (Handbook, Sections M & N)

- Have students prepare a small newspaper for parents explaining current facts about drugs.

- Discuss how prolonged use of medicine may become a crutch. In what situations (care of terminal patients) would dependence be disregarded?

- Discuss the difference between psychological and physical dependence.

- Define the limitations of self-medication. When should a physician be consulted?

- Discuss the controversy relative to penalties for possession and use of marijuana.

- Discuss methods and results of financing drug dependence.

- Have students write their own drug control laws based upon their present knowledge. Evaluate them in small groups or class.

- Licensed Beverage Industries, 155 E. 44th, New York, N.Y. 10017

  Write to above address for code of ethics in advertising. Discuss the extent to which this code is observed.

- Send letters of inquiry to learn how professional agencies help prevent illegal and unwise use of drugs.

- Trace the development of international laws from the 1909 Shanghai Conference to the Single Convention of 1961, to the present.

- Study the development of the Harrison Narcotic Act and the Food Drug and Cosmetic Act. Discuss the need for the 1965 amendments.

- Identify problems that could arise from laws that are too severe.

- Study state laws and regulations for the production, distribution, and use of drugs.

- Review local board of education policies related to pupil education about drugs.

- Discuss the effect of public opinion upon lawmakers.
  (Section H)

- Have students discuss any penalties for adults and for minors, and compare penalties for drug offenses to penalties for other crimes.
- Identify national agencies that work in enforcement programs.
- Discuss "If you don't agree with a law, how do you handle it."
- Encourage pupils in preparing a report on the measures which the Bureau of Customs takes to prevent illegal entry of drugs into the United States.
- Have class report on post office regulations related to the right to open and inspect mails.
  (Section G)
- Write or contact agencies concerned with drug control for information about their services. Compare functions of the agencies.
- Have pupils write for information concerning the economic impact of the tobacco and alcohol industries. Report findings.
- Evaluate advertising of non-prescription products.
- Role play action that should be taken if one is approached by a stranger to purchase or use an unknown substance; if by a friend.
  (Handbook, Section E, Perception)
- Discuss the objectives of the pusher or dealer.
  (Handbook, Section H, Value Clarification)
- Compare extent of, and restrictions upon drug misuse in various countries.
  (Group testing)
- Compare drug laws of several states and determine how they differ.
  (Group testing)
- Visit a court of law during the trial of a person accused of drug abuse. Evaluate the sentence in terms of fairness to the accused.
- Evaluate why families and friends shelter a drug user, e.g. an alcoholic.
  (Section H)
- Conduct a class debate on the merits and disadvantages of legalizing marijuana.
  (Section G and Fish Bowl exercise.)
- Discuss why laws do not provide complete protection. Ask pupils to write sample drug control laws and evaluate them. Comparing them with laws written earlier.
- Ask pupils to prepare a plan for effective education against drug abuse. At what age should it begin?

- Identify and explain the functions of various personnel involved in drug control.
(Group testing)

- Analyze and report on how the preparation for certain professions qualifies individuals in the control of drugs.
(Group testing)

- Write to Food and Drug Administration to obtain information about the testing of all new drug products: restricted clinical use etc.

- Provide a question box to assist in identifying misconceptions about drugs.

- Discuss the question, "Why does the community sometimes ostracize a drug addict after he has been rehabilitated?"

- Identify community organizations (civic clubs) and their activities that are related to prevention of drug abuse.

- Discuss ways that older pupils as individuals and/or as members of groups can exert positive influences on younger pupils.
(Handbook, Section I Listening)

- Examine resistance of a community against the establishment of a rehabilitation center.

- Discuss the responsibility of parents to teach their children about drugs: What to teach and at what age level. (Section G)

- Discuss the effect of parent behavior upon children's attitudes.
(Section G)

- Discuss ways in which parents can develop and maintain the confidence of their offspring. (Section G)

- Identify community leaders whom young people frequently admire and why.

- Role play parents and children in the following situations:
  (1) boy discovered to be a drug abuser.
  (2) parents desiring to know if their child is a drug abuser.
  (3) parents teaching their child about the dangers of drug abuse.
(Section N)

- Request and evaluate drug-related information from various community agencies.

- Survey the community to discover local centers for treatment and information. Interview the director and report the services to class.

- Ask pupils to prepare a report on how and when community rehabilitative services should be used· cost of service etc.

- After appropriate study, have class compare the nature and effectiveness of various approaches to rehabilitation.

- If clinics for drug abusers exist in the community, ask pupils to report on their services.

- Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages there would be in living in a society where there were no restrictions or controls on the use of drugs. What conditions might prevail? (Section H)

- Examine why some people seem to believe in trying to change their environment rather than in adjusting to situations.

- Define values. How do they affect the choices you make? What happens when a person in a group resists pressure because of his beliefs?
  (Section H)

- What is the difference between rationalization and lying?

- What kinds of things, attitudes, or experiences cause conflicts and frustrations in your life?

- How do you react or handle your conflicts?

- Which of the methods you use to handle conflicts work and which do not?
  (Section M)

- What are your needs?
  What do you think are your most important needs?

- Suggestion:
  Give prepared list of both physical and psychological needs.

- Which basic psychological need do you think is the most important reason for making you act?

- What do you think are the most important psychological needs of your particular group?

- How do you think your family, church or temple, school, and community have influenced you in gratifying your psychological needs?

- In what ways do you think the above institutions can help you to a greater degree in meeting these needs?

- Have students list worries and then rank order them. The students may then break off into pairs to discuss any of these if they desire to .
(Section G,J,M)

- The teacher may prepare a treat for certain students. Have these students comment on the taste of it and how it makes them feel. Discuss how this affected others in the class. Are there peer pressures here to make us want to do the same?
(Discussion of feelings)

- Brainstorm the question, what causes a drug to be first condemmed and then accepted by a society or at least a group of people. How does this relate to contemporary attitudes toward drugs.
(2,4,8 exercise or Brainstorming)

Outcomes

- Students will be able to determine the use of and abuse of socially accepted prescription and nonprescription drugs.

- Students will be able to list favorable and unfavorable ways of handling stresses and tensions of daily living.

- Students will be able to more freely discuss the importance of peer and adult acceptance. Students will be able to better accept his physical, mental, and emotional assets and liabilities through group feedback.

- Students will identify factors which require a law to be enacted to protect an individual or a consumer.

- Students will compare enactment of early drug laws to present day drug laws.

- Students will develop through group interaction their own opinions on the value of present day drug laws.

- Students will evaluate the controversy on the issues of tobacco and alcohol.

- Students will list some of the motives for drug users and abusers.

- Students will discuss and compare drug laws and use of their country and other countries.

- Students will be able to list factors they would want to see incorporated into a drug abuse class.

- Students will be able to list factors they would want to see incorprated into a drug abuse class.
- Students will be able to list reasons why generally both the drug user and the community are unwilling to accept each other.
- Students will discuss what their parents' responsibility to them and their responsibility to their parents should be.
- Students will be able to critically evaluate films, filmstrips, and printed materials as to its potential worth to themselves and classmates.
- Students will be able to suggest ways for school and community drug centers to be implimented.
- Student will be able to show his understanding of the value making process by listing value clarification situations.
- Students will list ways in which attitudes, relationships, needs and feelings affect their lives.
- Students will be able to recognize the advantages and disadvantages of delayed physical, mental, and emotional gratification.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We wish to acknowledge the following authors and consultants to credit them for some of the materials which appear in this handbook.

Davis, Harold S., "Small Group Dynamics"

Dreiher, Rudolph, "Understanding a Child's Goals"

Excerpts, Stamford Curriculum Guide

Fabun, Don, "Communications", Glencoe Press

Glasser, Wm.,"Schools Without Failure"

Kirschenbaum, Howard, "Teaching History (et al) with a Focus on Values"

Machover, Solomon, "Toward Self Understanding"

Malamud, Daniel I., "Toward Self Understanding"

Pfeiffer and Jones, "Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training"

Post-Crescent, "Who Wrote the Declaration", Lenin

Post and Weingartner, "Teaching as a Subversive Activity"

Robinson, Russell D.

Simon, Sidney, Raths, Louis, Harmin, Merrill

Wildman, Donald, "The Art of Listening", Weyauwega Chronicle

Zimbardo, Philip, "Influencing Attitudes and Changing Behavior"

INDEX

Section	Content (Exercise and Strategies)
A	Introduction
B	General (Acceptance, etc.)
C	Science of Change
D	Self Awareness
E	Perception
F	Initiators (Beginning A Group)
G	Grouping Techniques and Ideas
H	Value Clarification
I	Listening (Verbal and Non verbal Comm.)
J	Feedback
K	Cooperation
L	Leadership
M	Trust and Respect
N	Prejudices and Stereotypes 1) Role-Playing 2) Case-Studies
O	Audio-Visual Approach
P	Evaluations, Guides, Forms
Q	Miscellaneous

INTRODUCTION

This teacher's handbook of communications, articles and exercises, teaching strategies, and behavioral explanations was conceived in the spirit of need, a need brought on by our complex society, lack of concern for others, and countless other reasons.

The following article graphically points out this need.

> Turned off
> What's the most common complaint kids have about school these days? It turns them off. But one reason may be that they turn their teachers off. A survey taken in Pennsylvania recently showed that a majority of new teachers go sour on teaching within a very short time.
>
> Typical comments: "I have found teaching much more difficult and the students more apathetic... than I had anticipated." "Teaching on my own is much more difficult than my student teaching was. I didn't know teaching could be such hard work!" "Nothing I learned in college really prepared me for students the way they really are." "The frustration I feel is often overpowering. I work so hard to get ready for my classes, and then I find that many of the students are paying no attention at all." "Sometimes even the better students get on my nerves." "My teacher training was superficial."
>
> Here, according to the survey, are the main reasons teachers become disenchanted. They find it tough to keep control of the class. They have trouble deciding at what level the kids are able to learn and have no way of providing for individual differences. The students don't care about learning and don't respect teachers. Classes are too big. Clerical work and lesson planning take too much time. Teachers don't get enough guidance or supervision.
>
> Result: heavy teacher dropout-50% of those certified to teach are not teaching within two years. "There is something seriously wrong with a profession," says the foreword to the report, "that loses half of its new entrants in half the time required to prepare for it."

It should be pointed out that neither this nor any other handbook will, in and of itself, make a person a better communicator or teacher. However, it is intended that this handbook could serve to provide virtually any teacher with some tools to better relate with students.

SOME COMMUNICATION CONCEPTS

Acceptance
Trust
Status
Leadership
Helping relationships
Human needs
Human drives
Double standards
Prejudices
Stereotype
Expectations
Power
Pressures
Conformity
Non-conformity
Alienation
Anomie
Sematics
Perception
Perspective
Adequacy
Inadequacy
Action
Reaction
Hostility
Apathy
Rebellion
Suppression
Indifference
Individuality
Success
Failure
Interest
Verbal/Non-verbal
Atmosphere
Environment
Listening
Feelings
Ego
Jargon
Empathy
Introspection
Interaction
Values
Attitudes
Feed-back
Respect
Warmth
Friendliness
Relevancy
Irrelevancy
Roles

POSSIBLE EXERCISES

Listening Triads

Volunteering

One-Way, Two-Way Communications

Stem Sentences

Types of Leadership

2 - 4 - 8

Drugs in Schools
What Should be Our Priorities?

How Are You?

Summarize in One Word:
How Do You Feel?

Characteristics of a likable Person

Characteristics of an Effective Leader

Brainstorming

Group Testing (Discussion)

Trust Walk

Descriptive Metaphors

"Hello" Stickers

Role Playing

Panels (Reactions)

Rumor Clinic

Group Self Evaluation

Group Observers

Fish Bowl

"Non-Directive" Teaching, Group Dynamics, Provide Effective H.S. Drug Program

What started out as an attempt to determine the extent of drug use in a Seymour Connecticut high school has evlolved into an apparently successful drug education program largely managed by the students themselves.

The initial experiment has also been broadened into a pilot education program which is being used in the school on a considerably expanded basis in the current school year.

In response to a request by Seymour physicians and school authorities about the use of drugs in the schools, a set of goals was outlined, including development of a drug questionnaire for the student body; program recommendations; exploring basis for student attitudes about drug use; creation of a student atmosphere "conductive to personal growth and increased interpersonal competence with respect to their behavior regarding drugs"; and evaluation of the student response to the experimental education method.

A student committee of 12 was selected and invited to develop the drug questionnaire. The students were selected to represent the sophomore, junior and senior classes, both "A" and "D" students, class officers, former school dropouts, and both drug users and non-users. There were an equal number of boys and girls.

The committee was assigned the task of developing a drug abuse questionnaire. At the first meeting, according to Marlin H. Dearden, consultant to the project, one student suggested that each member write on a piece of paper whether he used drugs. Instead, Dearden who also serves as coordinator of drug education for the Department of Community Health of Griffin Hospital in Derby, Connecticut, suggested that the students be more open, "and, if they felt like it, to tell the other committee members if they were drug users."

"Almost immediately," he continued, "they accepted the proposal and 6 of the 12 students revealed they used drugs ranging from 'pot' to 'acid'" although school authorities had previously assumed that at most one member of the committee might be a drug user.

In the early sessions, the drug users were "hyperactive and dominated the conversation," but as the meetings continued, "the users felt less need to be the center of attention, and they identified more with the group and less as outsiders.

"As each student became more aware of himself and how others in the group perceived him." according to Dearden, "the group took on a cohesiveness and genuineness characterized by caring, supportiveness, and increased interpersonal competence."

Occasionally, the students asked that the hour-long meetings be extended, and at the end of the final session, one student wrote in an evaluation of the project that "I now understand the excuses that I use concerning my abuse of drugs and I understand more fully the reasons of others for not taking drugs. I find that my attitudes stem from feelings of insecurity and immaturity,"

According to Dearden, 3 of the 6 drug users stopped their use of drugs after 5 or 6 meetings. "It is questionable whether such behavioral change can be attributed to a few sessions," he acknowledged; "however, each student soon became accepted by the other group members and was able to identify with the group and experience less need for dependence on drugs as a means of social identification."

Deardon reported that the students generally agreed that the project was a "worthwhile experiment." No one considered it a waste of time; and "they all agreed that for them it was the most effective method they had experienced for learning about drugs, drug abuse, and themselves."

"Perhaps the most significant outcome of this pilot project was the realization that both drug users and non-users can develop an active, caring concern for each other 'as a person' and that open, rational--sometimes emotional-- discussion can be useful for students seeking social identity and understanding about their behavior."

The questionnaire devised by the student committee was then administered to the entire student body, with a 98.8% return, showing that 25% of the boys and 15% of the girls said they had used drugs.

"Probably the most useful question for planning drug education revealed the most surprising results. There was nearly total agreement among students that parental guidance was the least desirable method for learning about drugs." About 80% of them felt movies and discussions with other students would be more advantageous.

The committee experiment was repeated, followed by development of a teacher-training program aimed at increasing teachers' knowledge about drugs and drug abuse, group dynamics, non-directive teaching methods, and adolescent behavior. Recommendations growing out of these initial projects resulted in establishment of a similar drug education program for the entire school, making the 11 teachers who had completed the teacher training program each responsible for a group of 12 students.

Based on this experience, a still "more comprehensive" program was undertaken with the 1970-71 school year, and is still being evaluated. A report of the Seymour project is contained in Minnesota Welfare, Vol. 22#3, available upon request from Minnesota Dept. of Public Welfare, Centennial Bldg., St. Paul, Minn. 55101.

SCOPE PUBLICATIONS (FEB. 1971)

UNDERSTANDING A CHILD'S GOALS

(Summary from writings and lectures of Rudolf Dreikurs, M.D.)

Every action of a child has a purpose. His basic aim is to have his place in the group. A well-behaved, well-adjusted child has found his way toward social acceptance by conforming with the requirements of the group and by making his useful contribution to it. The misbehaving child is still trying in a mistaken way to gain social status. As long as he is sure of his place in the group, he will behave in accordance with the conventions governing the group. Only if he doubts his ability to find his place through pleasant and useful means will he seek less acceptable means. He is helped when adults do not fall for the device. Doing what the child expects only confirms his belief that his wrong approaches are effective.

FOUR GOALS OF A CHILD'S MISBEHAVIOR

GOAL	ADULT'S FIRST REACTION	METHOD OF RE-EDUCATION
1. Attention getting. (Wants attention and service)	Feels annoyed. (Wants to remind and to coax)	Avoid giving attention for child's devices in way he expects. Give experiences where contributing, not receiving, is means to status.
2. Power. (Wants to be the boss and the big one)	Feels provoked. ("You can't get away with this.")	Acknowledge child's value and power so his own self-confidence grows and he need not verify his power in destructive ways. Discuss his real strengths with him.
3. Revenge. (Wants to hurt others because he feels that to hurt is only chance to make himself felt in the group. May be proud to be disliked.)	Feels deeply hurt. ("I'll get even and make you pay for this.")	Consistent demonstration that he is and can be liked. May be a long process for these children as they will try to test over and over anyone who shows liking for them.
4. Display of inadequacy. May use real or imagined disability. (Wants to be left alone.)	Feels despair and hopelessness. ("I don't know what to do with him.")	Requires a large amount of faith in the child. Draw into group by asking opinion and help. Keep assignments of such nature that success is possible.

A discussion of these goals with a child or a group should never imply to the child fault-finding or criticism. It must be done in a friendly way without humiliating or belittling. It is advisable not to make a definite statement, but to start vaguely as, "May I tell you what I think? Could it be that perhaps you want to keep us busy with you?" (When a child is asked, "Why did you do that?" he honestly answers that he doesn't know or he rationalizes. He cannot be expected to know because no one has explained it to him in this way before.) If the interpretation is correct, the child shows a recognition by a twinkle or little smile. If incorrect, the next goal is questioned in like manner.

LEARNING ABOUT BEHAVIOR STYLES

Purpose

To become aware of one's own behavior style and sensitive to the work styles of others. To become a better observer of one's self and others and to become more articulate in pinpointing one's observations. To help pupils become aware and accepting of differences between themselves and others and to provide a basis for productive confrontations among students when styles clash during small group work.

Setting

This exercise can be used with any class that has had small experience. It can be completed within a class period.

Procedure

1. Introduce the topic of behavior styles. Your comments might cover such points as these:

   Much of the work we do in life requires collaboration with others.

   People always have reasons for acting the way they do-if they are noisy, they may be bored, frustrated, tense; if they don't pay attention, perhaps they don't understand; if they don't participate, it might be because other people seem to do a better job or work faster.

   When we understand each other better we can work together more efficiently and with more enjoyment. To achieve that understanding, we have to start with the attitude that each person has reasons for the way he acts, whether we like that way or not.

2. Ask the class to list the ways individuals differ in small discussion or work groups. Develop a list of opposites on the chalkboard.

   Example:

SOME PEOPLE	OTHERS
talk a lot	are quiet
are very serious	fool around
take over	don't get a chance
stick to the subject	go off the subject

3. Have the class choose one of the pair-categories to discuss and divide themselves into two groups on the basis of its two dimensions.

4. Rearrange the two groups into two circles-an inner and outer circle.

5. Ask the inner group to discuss why they act as they do, making sure that each member discusses his own behavior and not the behavior of the group. After everyone has had a chance to express himself, ask the group to discuss how they feel about those who behave the opposite way. The outer group listens in silence.

6. At the end of the second discussion, have the groups switch places and repeat the process.

7. If time permits, choose another topic from the chalkboard and follow the same procedure.

Analysis

To close the session, form quartets of two students from each of the groups. Ask them to spend five minutes sharing what they learned about others who behave differently. If time permits the entire class can share its observations.

Materials

Chalkboard

CLASS ROOM MEETINGS

I. SOCIAL PROBLEM--SOLVING MEETING

Concerned with the students behavior in school.

II. OPEN--ENDED MEETING

Concerned with intellectually important subjects.

III. EDUCATIONAL DIAGNOSTIC MEETING

Concerned with how well the students understand the concepts of the curriculum.

THESE MEETINGS ENCOURAGE:

A. Children to think.

B. Children to listen.

C. Children to solve problems.

D. Children to ponder intellectual questions.

I. SOCIAL PROBLEM--SOLVING MEETING

1. Attempt to solve the individual and group educational problems of the class and the school.

2. Discussion itself should always be directed towards solving the problem, the solution should never include punishment or fault finding.

   (Punishment serves as an excuse for not solving a problem rather than leading toward a solution)

3. Many problems arise that are not readily solvable--Sometimes these more difficult problems can be discussed over and over again.

4. The class makes judgements and from these judgements works toward positive solutions.

5. The teacher may reflect the class attitude, but should give opinions sparingly and make sure the class understands his or her opinions are not law.

This reinforces:

A. Satisfaction of thinking
B. Listening to others
C. Not afraid to express one's own ideas.
D. Developes an extremely wholesome atmosphere.

II. OPEN--ENDED MEETING

1. In the open-ended meetings the children are asked to discuss any thought-provoking question related to their lives. Questions may also be related to the Curriculum of the classroom.

   (The teacher is not specifically looking for factual answers. The teacher is trying to stimulate children to think and to relate what they know to the subject being discussed.)

2. A class that is involved, thinking and successful will have few disciplinary problems.

III. EDUCATIONAL--DIAGNOSTIC MEETING

1. These meetings are directly related to what the class is studying.

2. These meetings can be used by the teacher to get a quick evaluation of whether or not teaching procedures in the class are effective.

   (Children are basically very honest! They may give the teacher another insight towards the teaching act that they may have overlooked.)

3. Teachers, are the adults in the school and should have open minds to listen to their group. Some teachers will steer away from this type of meeting because of fear of criticism. We all learn by constructive criticism-this then is the attitude teachers must develop in their classrooms-they should be leading the way.

4. This type of meeting should never be used to grade or evaluate the students. It would be used only to find out what students know and what they don't know.

CLASS MEETING REQUIREMENTS

1. Should be used by all or the majority of the faculty.
2. In a meeting no one can fail-one person's opinion is just as good as anothers.
3. Suggest class meetings be held daily. Time should be provided for as you would provide for a reading group. (Could very well take the place of show and tell in the Primary years.)
4. Time should be from 10-30 minutes.
5. Meetings should always be conducted with the teacher and all the students seated in a circle. This is most important-everyone can see who is speaking-listening is improved. It is also recommended that the teacher varies where he or she will sit from day to day.
6. Leading a class meeting is difficult. At first it may cause you to reject this approach. Don't Give Up!
7. The class learns as well as the teacher.
8. There will be good meetings and bad ones.
9. If we expect students to work to understand and implement new ideas, we must not be afraid to do the same.
10. Class meetings work as well as the imagination, ingenuity and conviction of the teacher involved.

POSSIBLE MEETING THOUGHTS

How do you make friends?
What is a friend?
What do you do when someone new moves into your neighborhood?
When you first came to school, how did you make a friend?
Whom do we love?
Does anyone love us?
Do we love each other in school?
What is wrong with the child who is a bully?
What should we do with a child who doesn't play as well as other children?
If the absent child doesn't come to school, does it hurt us in any way?
If you were Mayor, President, Governor or Principal what would you do?
How would you treat the teacher if you were principal?
If your teacher got sick and couldn't come to class, could you get along by yourself if the principal could not find a substitute? What if it was for a week, how would you react. Who would be the leader?
Would you need a leader?
How would you spend the day hour by hour?
Are all children bored?
Is school work always boring?
How would you suggest that school work be made less boring?
Why do we pay taxes?
Who pays the most taxes?
How should taxes be levied to be most fair?
What should we do with children who are in trouble?
Are our laws fair to children?
Are there differences between laws for adults and laws for children?
Could school be conducted without books?
If you could have "one" book what would it be? Why?
What good are children anyway?
How do children help adults?
How do adults help children?
How important is money?
What happens to you when you are sick?
Whom do you go to if your parents don't know how to do a home work assignment that is too hard for you?

SENIORS in many of our better suburban high schools are bored. Acceptance by a good college has been the focus of most of their education. By the time senior year rolls around, the suburban twelfth-grader is playing a waiting game, waiting for the "yes" he wants to hear. Or, if he is one of the fortunate few who have already heard his year is still one of waiting, waiting to put in the time until June and graduation.

School systems have tried various programs to keep the restless college-entrance crew quiet: special honors courses, lectures by nationally known speakers; career seminars with local physicians, engineers, editors, professors, and psychoanalysts. Last semester one school sent six high school seniors, who had completed their requirements for graduation, to the School of Education at the University of Massachusetts to participate in our teacher-education operations.

In the light of efforts to keep the twelfth-grade alive, I would like to offer an alternative proposal which might solve two problems at once. It should capture the imagination of restless seniors and at the same time deal with a problem which simmers just below the surface in most of northern suburbia. I refer to suburbia's isolation from pressing social problems and its veneer of affluent superiority. At its mildest, it could be labeled "insensitivity."

Don't misunderstand me. I do believe that most suburban high school students are decent and likable people. However, their education has been such a competitive, self-interested kind of existence that some sensitivity to others has been lost. What most of these students need is some chance to give.

I propose a program aimed at sensitizing seniors to certain realities of the large cities nearby. Seniors and a representative group of faculty could draw up a series of what I call "Sensitizing Modules." Here are some sample modules which could be used by suburban schools in the Philadelphia, Pa., area, but counterparts could be found for every major city in the country:

. Sit in the waiting room of the maternity ward of Philadelphia General or Temple University Hospital. Strike up a conversation with other people in the waiting room. Try to distinguish which patients are charity cases and which are not. Spend 30 minutes in the emergency ward. Keep out of the way, but note carefully what happens.

. Go to magistrate's court and keep a list of the kinds of cases brought before the magistrate. Who are his customers? How are they handled? What lessons about our economy can you learn here?

. Wear old clothes and sit in the waiting room of the State Employment Office. Listen, observe, talk to the people sitting next to you. Read the announcements on the bulletin board, etc. Try to overhear an interview if possible.

. Compare prices, quality, etc. of a list of basic groceries at a chain store supermarket branch in a suburban area with one of the same chain's stores in a ghetto area. Also, check the quality of the produce and meat. Weigh several prepackaged meat or produce items in each store. Keep a record of your observations.

There is little doubt that these modules will challenge and even threaten some of the seniors. This is a far cry from a cram course for SAT's or from a super-tutoring or speed-reading course.

Here's how the Sensitizing Module program should operate. Give students a list of 20 to 30 modules. Form teams of two or three students. Ask each team to decide which module it wants to start with and then make its own arrangements. Put the students on their own. Don't prescribe a sequence of modules or a system for checking off modules with a faculty member.

Once a week call five or six teams together to explore their reactions, feelings and, of course, values concerning the modules they have most recently experienced. These discussions should be led by sensitive faculty members whom students respect-teachers who are more concerned with helping students explore and clarify their own values than with preaching ready-made values.

The real test of the success of these discussions will be if students keep trying increasingly difficult modules which other teams have already experienced. Any module which doesn't develop fans should be dropped from the list and replaced by another.

There are some highly charged and potentially explosive possibilities here. The group discussions should include an exploration of the dangers of certain modules. Some precautions and suggestions to keep in mind are:

1. Whites will not be overly welcome if they go a'slumming in black ghettos. This issue needs to be thoroughly examined before any team goes out on the first module. (In fact, this discussion might be worth calling a module in its own right.) It is very important to be respectful at all times. Patronizing the poor is just not what a sensitizing module is all about.

2. Be aware that some students' stereotypes will be reinforced when they return from certain modules. The poor are not always attractive, and the sentimentalists among the seniors will have as much to learn as some of the bigots. But don't be afraid of conflict in the multi-team discussion groups. The voicing of opinions and hot emotions will lead to significant value clarification.

3. Keep accurate journals of both observations and emotional reactions to them. Encourage students to record their impressions as soon after the module as possible.

4. Remove any evidence of grading. Discussions on module experiences need to be free of the school's traditional reward and punishment system.

5. It is possible that some modules will touch some students so deeply that they will want to do something about the conditions they have witnessed. It is hoped that the school will support the move toward some kinds of action, because students need to know that a natural outgrowth of genuine feelings and values is action.

It should be apparent that Modules are not for the faint-hearted. In many school systems there will be tremendous resistance to such a program. A lot of the resistance will be couched in terms of "safety," and, of course, there is some justification in this. However, it would be intriguing to find out if the parents most concerned about the safety of their offspring are not the same ones who supply their teenagers with cars with collapsible roofs and 350-horsepower engines.

In any case, Modules may well combat "senioritis" and put some relevance into the curriculum. Most important, they will probably "open the minds" of students unaware of the often-subtle "racism" in their backgrounds. The suburban school which is really concerned about its students could do a lot worse than to explore the possibilites of a program designed to sensitize their college-bound and often bored seniors.

Sample Modules

1. Go to a community health center and wait in line. Watch the attitude of the personnel in their dealings with chairity cases. Talk with some patients.

2. Attend church services in a store-front church.

3. Spend a morning making the rounds with a visiting nurse.

4. Read a story to a black child in kindergarten or first grade. Hold the child on your lap.

5. Eat lunch in a predominantly black luncheonette.

6. Observe garbage collection on various streets in your own neighborhood and on streets deep in the ghetto. Compare the frequency and the way the job is done.

7. Go to a ghetto campaign headquarters for the Democratic and Republican parties and work a few hours with local people, either canvassing, leafleting, or making phone calls.

8. Attend a meeting of a civic improvement association in the ghetto. (Contact local churches for meeting places or see announcements in a black newspaper.)

9. Go to an area into which blacks are just moving. Survey the names of the real estate companies which have signs up. Try to find out if they have been involved in block-busting in other areas of the city.

10. Read The Autobiography of Malcolm X or Manchild in the Promised Land or some other book of that genre. Discuss it with a black college student who is active in the black power movement.

11. Ask to work three afternoons in the gym of a community center in the ghetto.

12. Talk to several school dropouts and find out what they think needs to be changed to keep kids in school.

13. Find a housing project and do a tabulation on the toilet facilities provided for the projects three to five-year old population, particularly when the children are playing outside.

14. Spend a weekend with the American Friends Service Committe on one of their Weekend Workcamps, which are a combination of seminar, clean-up, and paint-up.

15. Make a poster on rat control and ask a ghetto building superintendent if you can tack it up in the hallway of his building.

16. Send a letter to the editor of your city's newspaper on some of your findings as you go through some modules. Write similar letters to your Congressmen.

17. Interview a middle class black and ask him or her about any experiences he or she has had with real estate agents or building superintendents.

18. Go to a little grocery store in a ghetto a week before welfare checks come out and note the prices on various staples. Go back on the day the checks come out and see if there are any price increases.

19. Go to a movie you have already seen but this time go to a theatre in the ghetto.

20. Interview some firemen just back from a false alarm in the ghetto.

21. Borrow a tape recorder and interview an elderly citizen who has lived in a ghetto neighborhood for 20 or more years. Inquire about the changes he has seen.

FORCE FIELD ANAYLSIS

CHANGE DOES NOT HAVE TO BE HAPHAZARD

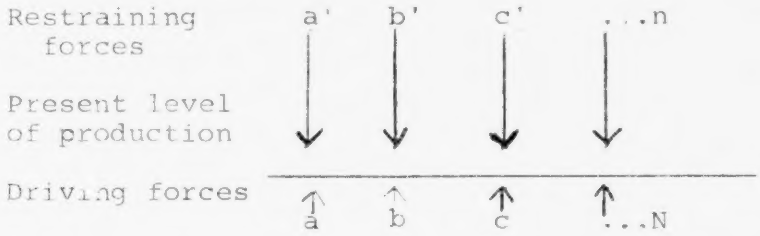
No institution or organization is exempt from change. Today the student who returns to his alma mater ten years after graduation can expect to find changes, not only in personnel, but also in personnel policies and teaching practices. The executive returning to the firm where he once worked, the nurse going back to her old hospital, the social worker visiting his agency--all can expect to find sweeping changes.

It is fairly easy to identify changes in institutional patterns after they have occurred. It is more difficult to analyze changes while they are going on and still more difficult to predict changes or to influence significantly the direction and the tempo of changes already under way. Yet, more and more, those who have managerial functions in organizations must analyze and predict impending changes and take deliberate action to shape change according to some criteria of progress. The planning of change has become part of the responsibility of management in all contemporary institutions, whether the task of the institution is defined in terms of health. education, social welfare, industrial production, or religious indoctrination.

Whatever other equipment managers require in analyzing potentialities for change and in planning and directing change in institutional settings, they need some conceptual scheme for thinking about change. This need stems from the profusion and variety of behaviors that accompany any process of change.

One useful model for thinking about change has been proposed by Kurt Lewin, who saw behavior in an institutional setting, not as a static habit or pattern, but as a dynamic balance of forces working in opposite directions within the social-psychological space of the institution (1).

Take for example, the production level of a work team in a factory. This level fluctuates within narrow limits above and below a certain number of units of production per day. Why does this pattern persist? Because, Lewin says, the forces that tend to raise the level of production are equal to the forces that tend to depress it. Among the forces tending to raise the level of production might be: (a) the pressures of supervision on the work team to produce more; (b) the desire of at least some team members to attract favorable attention from supervisors in order to get ahead individually; (c) the desire of team members to earn more under the incentive plan of the plant. Such forces Lewin called "driving forces." Among the forces tending to lower the level of production might be: (a) a group standard in the production team against "rate busting" or "eager beavering" by individual workers; (b) resistance of team members to accepting training and supervision from management; (c) feelings by workers that the product they are producing is not important. Granted the goal of increased productivity, these forces are "restraining force." The balance between the two sets of forces, which defines the established level of production, Lewin called a "quasi-stationary equilibrium." We may diagram this equilibrium as follows:



According to Lewin, this type of thinking about patterns of institutionalized behavior applies not only to levels of production in industry, but also to such patterns as levels of discrimination in communities, atmosphere of democracy or autocracy in social agencies, supervisor-teacher-pupil relationships in school systems and formal or informal working relationships among levels of a hospital organization.

According to this way of looking at patterns of behavior, change takes place when an imbalance occurs between the sum of the restraining forces and the sum of the driving forces. Such imbalance unfreezes the pattern; the level then changes until the opposing forces are again brought into equilibrium. An imbalance may occur through a change in the magnitude of any one force, through a change in the direction of a force, or through the addition of a new force.

For examples of each of these ways of unfreezing a situation, let us look again at our original illustration. Suppose that the members of the work team join a new union, which sets out to get pay raises. In pressing for shifts in overall wage policy, the union increases the suspicion of workers toward the motives of all management, including supervisors. This change tends to increase the restraining force--let's say restraining force _b'_. As a result, the level of production moves down. As the level of production fails, supervisors increase their pressure toward greater production, and driving force _a_ increases. This release of increased counterforce tends to bring the system into balance again at a level somewhere near the previous level. But the increase in magnitude of these opposed forces may also increase the tension under which people work. Under such conditions, even though the level of production does not go down very much, the situation becomes more psychologically explosive, less stable, and less predictable.

A war that demands more and more of the product that the work team is producing may convert the workers' feeling that they are not producing anything important (restraining force _c_') to a feeling that their work is important and that they are not working hard enough. This response will occur provided, of course, that the workers are commited to the war effort. As the direction of force _c_'is reversed, the level of production will almost certainly rise to bring the behavior pattern into a state of equilibrium at a higher level of productivity.

Suppose a new driving force is added in the shape of a supervisor who wins the trust and the respect of the work team. The new force results in a desire on the part of the work team to make the well-liked supervisor look good--or at least to keep him from looking bad--in relation to his colleagues and superiors. This force may operate to offset a generally unfavorable attitude toward management.

These examples suggest that in change there is an unfreezing of an existing equilibrium, a movement toward a new equilibrium, and the refreezing of the new equilibrium. Planned change must use situational forces to accomplish unfreezing, to influence the movement in generally desirable directions, and to rearrange the situation, not only to avoid return to the old level but to stabilize the change or improvement.

This discussion suggests three major strategies for achieving change in any given pattern of behavior: the driving forces may be increased; the restraining forces may be decreased; these two strategies may be combined. In general, if the first strategy only is adopted, the tension in the system is likely to increase. More tension means more instability and more unpredictability and the likelihood of irrational rather than rational responses to attempts to induce change.

It is a well known fact that change in an organization is often followed by a reaction toward the old pattern, a reaction that sets in when pressure for change is relaxed. After a curriculum survey, one school system put into effect several recommendations for improvement suggested by the survey. The action was taken under pressure from the board and superintendent, but when they relaxed their vigilance, the old pattern crept back in.

This experience raises the problem of how to maintain a desirable change. Backsliding takes place for various reasons. Those affected by the changes may not have participated in the planning enough to internalize the changes that those in authority are seeking to induce; when the pressure of authority is relaxed, there is no pressure from those affected to maintain the change. Or, a change in one part of the social system may not have been accompanied by enough co-relative changes in overlapping parts and sub-systems.

On the basis of this model of analysis, several principles of strategy for effecting institutional change may be formulated.

To change a subsystem or any part of a subsystem, relevant aspects of the environment must also be changed.

The manager of the central office of a large school system wants to increase the efficiency of the secretarial forces by placing private secretaries in a pool. It is the manager's hope that the new arrangement will make for better utilization of the secretaries' time. In this situation at least two driving forces are obvious: fewer secretaries can serve a larger number of sub-executives; a substantial saving can be expected in office space and equipment. Among the restraining forces are the secretaries' resistance to a surrender of their personal relationship with a status person, a relationship implicit in the role of private secretary; the possible loss of the prestige implicit in the one-to-one secretary-boss relationship; the prospective dehumanization, as the secretaries see it, of their task; and probably an increase in work load. Acceptance of this change in role and relationship would require accompanying changes in other parts of the subsystem. Furthermore, before the private secretaries could whole-heartedly accept the change, their bosses as well as lower-status clerks and typists in the central office would have to accept the alteration in the secretarial role as one that did not necessarily imply an undesirable change in status. The secretaries' morale would surely be affected if secretaries in other parts of the school system, secretaries to principals in school buildings, for example, were not also assigned to a pool.

Thus to plan changes in one part of a subsystem, in this case in the central office of the school system, eventually involves consideration of changes in overlapping parts of the system--the clerical force, the people accustomed to private secretaries, and others as well. If these other changes are not affected, one can expect lowered morale, requests for transfers, and even resignation. Attempts to change any subsystem in a larger system must be preceded or accompanied by diagnosis of other subsystems that will be affected by the change.

To change behavior on any one level of a hierarchical organization, it is necessary to achieve complementary and reinforcing changes in organization levels above and below that level.

Shortly after World War II, commanders in the United States Army decided to attempt to change the role of the sergeancy. The sergeant was not to be the traditionally tough, driving leader of men, but a supportive, counseling squad leader. The traditional view of the sergeant's role was held by enlisted men, below the rank of sergeant, as well as by second lieutenants, above the rank of sergeant.

Among the driving forces for change were the need to transform the prewar career army into a new peacetime military establishment composed largely of conscripts; the perceived need to reduce the gap between military life and civilian status; and the desire to avoid any excess in the new army that might cause the electorate to urge a return to the prewar volunteer military establishment.

Among the immediate restraining forces were the traditional authoritarian role behaviors of the sergeancy, forged by wartime needs and peacetime barracks service. These behaviors were in harmony with the needs of a military establishment that by its very nature is based on the notion of a clearly defined chain of command. Implicit in such a hierarchy are orders, not persuasion; unquestioning obedience, not critical questioning of decisions. Also serving as a powerful restraining force was the need for social distance between ranks in order to restrict friendly interaction between levels.

When attempts were made to change the sergeant's role,it was discovered that the second leutenant's role, at the next higher level, also had to be altered. No longer could the second lieutenant use the authority of the chain-of-command system in precisely the same way as before. Just as the sergeant could no longer operate on the principle of unquestioning obedience to his orders, so the second lieutenant could no longer depend on the sergeant to pass orders downward unquestioningly. It was soon seen that, if the changed role of the sergeant was to be stabilized, the second lieutenant's role would have to be revised.

The role of the enlisted man also had to be altered significantly. Inculcated with the habit of responding unquestioningly to the commands of his superiors, especially the sergeant, the enlisted man found a new permissiveness somewhat disturbing. On the one hand, the enlisted man welcomed being treated more like a civilian and less like a soldier. On the other hand, he felt a need for an authoritative spokesman who represented the army unequivocally. The two needs created considerable conflict An interesting side effect, which illustrates the need of the enlisted men for an authoritative spokesman for the army, was the development of greater authority in the rank of corporal, the rank between private and sergeant. To recapitualte briefly, the attempts to change the role of the sergeancy led unavoidably to alterations in the roles of lieutenant, private, and corporal. Intelligent planning of change in the sergeancy would have required simultaneous planning for changes at the interrelated levels.

The place to begin change is at those points in the system where some stress and strain exist. Stress may give rise to dissatisfaction with the status quo and thus become a motivating factor for change in the system.

One school principal used the dissatisfaction expressed by teachers over noise in the corridors during passing periods to secure agreement to extra assignments to hall duty. But until the teachers felt this dissatisfaction, the principal could not secure their wholehearted agreement to the assignments.

Likewise, hospitals have recently witnessed a significant shift of functions from nurses to nurse's aides. A shortage of nurses and consequent overwork led the nurses to demand more assistance. For precisely the same reasons, teachers in Michigan schools were induced to experiment with teachers' aides.

The need for teachers to use the passing period as a rest period, the desire of the nurses to keep exclusive control over their professional relationships with the patient, and the resistance of teachers to sharing teaching functions with lay people--all these restraining forces gave way before dissatisfactions with the status quo. The dissatisfactions became driving forces sufficiently strong to overcome the restraining forces. Of course, the restraining forces do not disappear in the changed situation. They are still at work and will need to be handled as the changed arrangements become stabilized.

In diagnosing the possibility of change in a given institution, it is always necessary to assess the degree of stress and strain at points where change is sought. One should ordinarily avoid beginning change at the point of greatest stress.

Status relationships had become major concern of the staff members in a certain community agency. Because of lower morale in the professional staff, the lay board decided to revamp lay-professional relationships. The observable form of behavior that led to the action of the board was the striving for recognition from the lay policy-making body by individual staff members. After a management survey, the channels of communication between the lay board and the professional staff were limited to communication between the staff head and the members of the lay board. The entire staff, except the chief executive, perceived this step as a personal rejection by the lay board and as a significant lowering of the status of staff members. The result was still lower morale. Because of faulty diagnosis, the change created more problems than it solved.

The problem of status-striving and its adulteration of lay-professional relationships could have been approached more wisely. Definition of roles--lay and professional--could have been undertaken jointly by the executive and the staff in an effort to develop a more common perception of the situation and a higher professional *esprit de corps*. Lack of effective recognition symbols within the staff itself might have been dealt with first, and the touchy prestige symbol of staff communication with the lay board put aside for the time being.

If thorough going changes in a hierarchical structure are desirable or necessary, change should ordinarily start with the policy-making body.

Desegregation has been facilitated in school systems where the school board first agreed to the change. The board's statement of policy supporting desegregation and its refusal to panic at the opposition have been crucial factors in acceptance of the change throughout the school system and eventually throughout the community. In localities where boards of education have not publicly agreed to the change, administrators' efforts to desegregate have been overcautious and halfhearted, and the slightest sign of opposition in the institution or the community has led to a strengthening rather than a weakening of resistance to change, though, of course, "illegitimate" resitance must still be faced and dealt with as a reality in the situation.

Both the formal and the informal organization of an institution must be considered in planning to any process of change.

Besides a formal structure, every social system has a network of cliques and informal groupings. These informal groupings often exert such strong restraining influences on institutional changes initiated by formal authority that, unless their power can be harnessed in support of a change, no enduring change is likely to occur. The informal groupings in a factory often have a strong influence on the members' rate of work, a stronger influence than the pressure of the foreman. Any worker who violates the production norms established by his peer group invites ostracism, a consequence few workers dare to face. Schools, too, have their informal groupings, membership in which is often more important to teachers than the approval of their supervisors. To involve these informal groups in the planning of changes requires ingenuity and sensitivity as well as flexibility on the part of an administrator.

The effectiveness of a planned change is often directly related to the degree to which members at all levels of an institutional hierarchy take part in the fact-finding and the diagnosing of needed changes and in the formulating and reality-testing of goals and programs of change.

Once the workers in an institution have agreed to share in investigating their work problems and their relationship problems, a most significant state in overcoming restraining forces has been reached. This agreement should be followed by shared fact-finding by the group, usually with the technical assistance from resources outside the particular social system. Participation by those affected by the change in fact-finding and interpretation increases the likelihood that new insights will be formed and that goals of change will be accepted. More accurate diagnosis results if the people to be changed are trained in fact-finding and fact-interpreting methods as part of the process of planning.

This article has been written from the standpoint that change in an institution or organization can be planned. Is this a reasonable view? Can change be deliberately planned in organizations and institutions as complex as school systems, hospitals, and armies? Do not many determinants of change operate without the awareness or knowledge of those involved?

It is true that most people are unaware of many factors that trigger processes of change in the situations in which they work. And most people are unaware of many facts that influence the direction of change. Many factors even when known, are outside the power of people in an organization to control.

For some forces that influence change in an organization stem from the wider society: new knowledge, new social requirements, new public demands force the management of a school system to alter the content and the methods of its instructional program. Some factors cannot be fully known in advance. Even when they are anticipated, the school cannot fully control them.

Some forces that work for change or resistance to change in an organization stem from the personalities of the leaders and the members of the organization. Some of these factors are unknown to the persons themselves and to those around them. Some personality factors, even when they are known, cannot be altered or reshaped, save perhaps by therapeutic processes beyond the resources of personnel involved.

All this is true. Yet members and leaders of organizations, especially those whose positions call for planning and directing change, cannot evade responsibility for attempting to extend their awareness and their knowledge of what determines change. Nor can they evade responsibility for involving others in planning change. All concerned must learn to adjust to factors that cannot be altered or controlled, and to adapt and to alter those that can be. For as long as the dynamic forces of science, technology, and intercultural mixing are at work in the world, change in organizations is unavoidable. Freedom, in the sense of the extension of uncoerced and effective human choice, depends on the extension of man's power to bring processes of change, now often chaotic and unconsidered, under more planful and rational control (2).

REFERENCES:

1. Kenneth D. Benne and Bozidar Muntyan, Human Relations in Curriculum Change, New York: Dryden Press, 1951.
2. Ronald Lippitt, Jeanne Watson, and Bruce Westley, Dynamics of Planned Change, New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1958

SUMMARY: Social Psychological Findings--Attitude Change

A. THE PERSUADER

1. There will be more opinion change in the desired direction if communicator has high credibility than if he has low credibility. Credibility is:
    a. Expertise (ability to know correct stand on issue)
    b. Trustworthiness (motivation to communicate knowledge without bias)
2. The credibility of the persuader is less of a factor in opinion change later on than it is immediately after exposure.
3. A communicator's effectiveness is increased if he initially expresses some views that are also held by his audience.
4. What an audience thinks of a persuader may be directly influenced by what they think of his message.
5. The more extreme the opinion change that the communicator asks for the more actual change he is likely to get.
    a. The greater the discrepancy (between communication and recipient's initial position), the greater the attitude change, up to extremely discrepant points.
    b. With extreme discrepancy, and with low credibility sources, there is a falling off in attitude change.
6. Communicator characteristics irrelevant to the topic of his message can influence acceptance of its conclusion.

B. HOW TO PRESENT THE ISSUES

1. Present one side of the argument when the audience is generally friendly, or when your position is the only one that will be presented, or when you want immediate, though temporary, opinion change.
2. Present both sides of the argument when the audience starts out disagreeing with you, or when it is probable that the audience will hear the other side from someone else.
3. When opposite views are presented one after the other, the one presented last will probably be more effective. Primary effect is more predominant when the second side immediately follows the first, while recency effect is more predominant when the opinion measure comes immediately after the second side.
4. There will probably be more opinion change in the direction you want if you explicitly state your conclusions than if you let the audience draw their own, except when they are rather intelligent. Then implicit conclusion drawing is better.
5. Sometimes emotional appeals are more influential, sometimes factual ones. It all depends upon the audience.
6. Fear appeals: The findings generally show a positive relationship between intensity of fear arousal and amount of attitude change if recommendations for action are explicit and possible, but negative reaction otherwise.
7. The fewer the extrinsic justifications provided in the communication for engaging in counter-norm behavior, the greater the attitude change for actual compliance.
8. No final conclusion can be drawn about whether the opening or closing parts of the communication should contain the more important material.

9. Cues which forwarn the audience of the manipulative intent of the communication increase resistance to it, while the presence of distractors simultaneously presented with the message decreases resistance.

C. THE AUDIENCE AS INDIVIDUALS

1. The people you may want most in your audience are often least likely to be there. There is evidence for selective seeking and exposure to information consonant with one's position, but not for selective avoidance of information dissonant with one's position.
2. The level of intelligence of the audience determines the effectiveness of some kinds of appeals.
3. Successful persuasion takes into account the reasons underlying attitudes as well as the attitudes themselves. That is, the techniques used must be tailored to the basis for developing the attitude.
4. The individuals personality traits affect his susceptibility to persuasion;he is more easily influenced when his self-esteem is low.
5. There are individuals who are highly persuasible and who will be easily changed by any influence attempt, but who are then equally influenceable when faced with countercommunications.
6. Ego-involvement with the content of the communication (its relation to ideological values of the audience) decreases the acceptance of its conclusion. Involvement with the consequences of one's response increases the probability of change and does no more when source-audience discrepancy is greater.
7. Actively role-playing a previously unacceptable position increases its acceptability.

D. THE INFLUENCE OF GROUPS

1. A person's opinions and attitudes are strongly influenced by groups to which he belongs and wants to belong.
2. A person is rewarded for conforming to the standards of the groups and punished for deviating from them.
3. People who are most attached to the group are probably least influenced by communications which conflict with group norms.
4. Opinions which people make known to others are harder to change than opinions which are held privately.
5. Audience participation (group discussion and decision-making) helps to overcome resistance.
6. Resistance to counter-norm communication increases with salience of one's group identification.
7. The support of even one other person weakens the powerful effect of a majority opinion of an individual.
8. A minority of two people can influence the majority if they are consistent in their deviant responses.

E. THE PERSISTENCE OF OPINION CHANGE

1. In time, the effects of a persuasive communication tend to wear off.
    a. A communication from a positive source leads to more rapid decay of attitude change over time than one from a negative source.

   - b. A complex or subtle message produces slower decay of attitude change.
   - c. Attitude change is more persistent over time if the receiver actively participates in, rather than passively receives, the communication.

2. Repeating a communication tends to prolong its influence.
3. More of the desired opinion change may be found some time after exposure to the communication than right after exposure (sleeper effect).

IDENTIFY TEN GENERALIZATIONS ON HUMAN BEHAVIOR

Check ( ) the statements you consider to be true.

_____ 1. Behavior depends on both the person and his environment.

_____ 2. Understanding one's own motivation helps one to understand other people by reducing blocks which prevent one from listening to, and thus understanding, the other person.

_____ 3. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.

_____ 4. The attitude of a teacher toward his students is probably less critical than the nature of the change itself.

_____ 5. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.

_____ 6. Each individual behaves in ways which make sense to him.

_____ 7. Before a teacher initiates change efforts, he should examine his assumptions about persons, the nature of the organization, the value of the goal he is seeking, and the importance of the change itself.

_____ 8. One way to influence another person's behavior is to help get a more accurate view of reality.

_____ 9. An individual's view of himself has little influence on what he does.

_____ 10. The more we can help another person to feel comfortable in examining his own point of view and how he arrived at it, the more we help him to behave rationally, flexibily, and creatively.

_____ 11. Most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment if a teacher is to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of educational objectives.

_____ 12. The process of change is helped when the persons who will be effected can participate in the decision-making process and in planning for the change.

_____ 13. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the services of objectives to which he is committed.

_____ 14. To introduce changes as if people were not involved is to threaten the change effort with defeat.

_____ 15. An individual's perception of a situation influences his behavior in that situation.

_____ 16. When blocked, people tend to change their point of view (and thus their behavior).

_____ 17. In introducing change of any kind, and of whatever magnitude, the leader needs to introduce support and help for the people affected.

_____ 18. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of problems is narrowly distributed in the population.

_____ 19. The average human prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

_____ 20. An individual's behavior is influenced by his needs, which vary from person to person.

EXERCISE IN SELF-DISCLOSURE

Self-Knowledge and Tally Sheet

Directions: In the spaces below list the major assets and liabilities of your personality. Then place a check mark in front of these aspects of yourself which you have revealed to the participants of the group so far. Next use the accompanying worksheet to provide feedback to other group participants. When the leader has collected the feedback sheets and reads them aloud, you may use this sheet to tally those perceptions of you held by other group participants. This sheet will be yours to keep.

ASSETS

SELF OTHERS

LIABILITIES

SELF OTHERS

EXERCISE IN SELF-DISCLOSURE

Group Participant Feedback Sheet

Directions: For each participant, including yourself, write in the two major assets and liabilities in regard to personality. These will be read aloud.

PARTICIPANT	ASSETS	LIABILITIES

Small - Group Dynamics

SELF-AWARENESS EXERCISE

Instructions for this exercise will be given to you by the workshop instructor. The following sentence stems are to be discussed in your group. Do not write responses. Be sure that every member of your group participates in the discussion.

A.

1. When I enter a new group I feel...
2. When people first meet me they ...
3. When someone does all the talking I ...
4. I expect a leader to ...

B.

1. In a group, I am most afraid of...
2. I am hurt most easily when...
3. I feel left out of a group when...
4. I trust those who...

C.

1. I feel closest to others when...
2. I feel loved most when...
3. My greatest strength is...
4. I am...

SELF-AWARENESS EXERCISE (1 hour)

1. Pass out sheets

2. DIRECTIONS:
   A. Go around the circle, each completing the sentence A-1

   B. Then go to A-2, A-3, etc.

   C. Then go to B-1, B-2, etc.

   D. Then go to C-1, C-2, etc.

3. Everyone must answer when his turn comes; you may not pass or say,"I don't have an answer."

A PREVENTIVE APPROACH TO SUBSTANCE ABUSE EDUCATION

GUIDE SHEET FOR GROUP WORKING

1. What are some things we found out about ourselves when looking at the pictures in the Blue Cross Booklet? Why?
2. What are some "specific situations in my school which hamper me from providing "success experiences" for each child?
   the content, the books, class size, grading, testing, the administration, school standards, promotion, parents, I don't know how to go about it?
   It's not my problem? Why?
3. What is it about some learners that "shut you off"? What kinds of learners are they? Why?
4. Do you really think problems as the drug problem could be helped some if schools could enable all learners to feel a sense of worth, value, dignity, and success? Why? or why not?
5. Why do you think young people start to use drugs? Why do they keep it up?

Note: The above questions refer to the booklet "Adolescense for Adults", a report by Blue Cross, 4115 N. Teutonia Ave., Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53201.

TOWARD SELF-UNDERSTANDING

Group Techniques in Self-confrontation

Paper Pencil Conversation. The group is separated into pairs. One student in each pair is assigned the role of parent. The second student is assigned the role of an 18 year old who returns home at 4 A.M. from a Saturday night date. Each pair engages in a written "conversation" on a sheet of paper which they pass back and forth between them. The parent" in each pair "speaks" first by writing the angry statement, "This is a fine time for you to be coming home!" The "teenager" writes his reply on the sheet and passes the sheet back to the "parent" for the "parent's" written response. The "parent" answers in writing and passes the sheet back to the "teenager." After fifteen to twenty minutes these written conversations are brought to a halt. A pair volunteers to read their exchange aloud with appropriate dramatization. After the group discusses the exchange, the procedure is repeated with as many other pairs as there is time for.

This experiment provides the group with a training exercise in interpreting the give and take of an actual interpersonal exchange, one in which anger is experienced, expressed, and coped with in a variety of ways. For example, in one exchange, the "adolescent" was defiantly belligerent and the "parent" apologetic, while in another, the "parent" succeded in inducing guilty responses in the "adolescent" by adopting a martyr's role. Students may become curious about the dynamic origins of such differences, and are encouraged to recall relevant experiences with their own parents. (Writing out a conversation has the advantage of permitting a whole class to participate simultaneously and allows quick "replays" of any exchange without requiring a tape recorder.)

Following is a useful variation: The group sits in a circle. Each person engages in two written conversations simultaneously, playing the part of parent to the student on his right and the part of adolescent to the student on his left. Thus, each student has the opportunity to compare the similarities and differences in the way he played both roles and whether playing both roles simultaneously led to some interactive influence between them. (One student noticed, for example, that the anger he could not express towards his "parent" was directed against his "daughter.")

Endless variations of this experiment are possible, with pairs playing the parts of husbands and wives, employers and employees, and the like, and with dialogues created around a variety of opening lines. A student may even be paired off with himself by instructing him to write out a talking-to-himself dialogue in which "I" converses with "Me."

Sentence Completion Autobiography. Students fill out a set of incomplete autobiographical sentences. Examples of sentence stems which have been found useful are listed below. The leader can review with the group all the completions of any one student, noting patterns and trends and inferring underlying dynamics, or else individual items. (selected either at the discretion of the leader or suggested by the students).

My childhood....
Father was the kind of man who....
He usually....
My mother can be best described as....
She usually....
Mother and I....
Father and I....
I was happiest when....
I was angry when....
I was afraid when....
I felt blue when....
Family meals were times when....
On Sundays....
On my birthday....
When I was ill....
I used to look....
In school....
With children my age....
I used to daydream that....
I never realized that....
I was surprised to learn that....
At night I....
In the bathroom....
When I did something wrong....
I had a friend who....
When I was between 3 and 6 years old....
When I was between 6 and 10 years old....
When I was between 10 and 15 years old....
In my spare time I liked best to....
At home my favorite room was....

Drifting. Students are instructed to drift and wander around the classroom as aimlessly as possible without talking to each other. There is usually considerable giggling among the members as they begin moving around the room. Gradually the group falls into an eery silence as some members wander by themselves, and others move together through the room as if in a herd. Many members begin to find the whole situation quite discomforting. Almost invariably, one or two students, unable to continue, return to their seats. Gradually others join them. Soon only the leader and a few diehards continue to wander, while the rest of the class looks on nonpulsed as to what to make of all this. The leader finally halts the wandering.

Though the situation is manifestly contrived, this experiment can nonetheless be effective in stimulating emotionally involved discussion of such themes as conformity, independence, compulsivity of goal orientation, and the dynamics of self-consciousness.

Looking at an Ambiguous Picture. An ambiguous picture, for example, a picture of a woman who can be preceived as young and pretty or as old and haggard, is projected onto a screen. Members are asked to simply describe what they see. They are astonished to hear the sharply different perceptions that are reported. Gradually, it begins to dawn on the group that the slide can be seen in two ways. The leader then states "It is possible to see the slide in either way, yet some of you saw it one way, and others saw it quite differently. What is your reaction to having gone through this experience?" Some students are interested in the fact that there are these different perceptions and in the factors which might underlie such differences, be it past experiences or current needs. On the other hand, there is always a number of students who react by evaluating their performance: "Which perception is the right one?" Which picture is it better to see first?" "What's the matter with me if I can see only one picture but not the other?" The leader can point up for exploration these individually different reactions to the very fact of individual differences.

Money. The leader asks the group, "Suppose you could have as much money as you wished for, in one lump sum, how much would you want?" In a go-around the members report the amounts of money wished for and their reasons for these chosen sums. Some students are extremely modest in the sums they wish for, while others wish for millions of dollars. The reasons underlying the chosen sums reflect a wide variety of personality significant factors. For example: "Enough to support my family for twenty years." "I'd never have to work again." I could give to charity."

The leader next invites students to guess how much money they have on their person. Students share their estimates and how they arrived at them. Each student then checks his estimate against the facts. Some students find that they knew exactly how much money they had on their person, others that they underestimated or overestimated. Their reactions to these findings are then discussed. Now the procedure is repeated, but this time students make estimates as to how much money the leader has on his person. They give their reasons for their estimates. The leader then divulges his actual amount of money.

This experiment elicits an array of attitudes toward money, both as an end in itself and as an instrumental value in relation to one's style of life and life goals. Students can become more aware of the variety of feelings, attitudes, and symbolic values which become attached to money in our culture.

Seat-Changing. The leader observes aloud that some members tend to take certain fixed seats each week while others tend to sit in different seats from session to session: "What might underlie these different patterns?" He then suggests that each member pick a seating place as different as possible from his present one. [illegible] asks for the members' reaction to this suggestion. Then at his signal the members get up and change their seats. The leader too changes [illegible] seat.

When the group has finished the seat-changing, the leader asks what they observed and experienced as they went about the task. The discussion which follows may touch on such aspects of the experience as the following: the resistance to or eagerness for change, the wish to sit or not to sit next to a specific member, indecisiveness about where to sit, competitiveness for particular places, how the classroom looks from the new position, the reaction to the leader's new seating position. The leader may raise such questions as the following: How radically different is your new seat from your old one? Which shifts were largest, which smallest; from what points of view? Who thought of sitting in the leader's chair? On the arm of the chair, on the table, on the floor? Interesting, isn't it, that these seating places didn't occur to you. I wonder why? Would you have sat in these places if you had thought of them? Why not?

After discussion of these questions, the leader requests the group to return to their old seats, and once they have done this, he asks them for their reactions to this new change. Some students usually prefer to stay in the new seats but comply with the leader's instruction to return to the old seat. He draws this to their attention and inquires into the reasons for their compliance.

Value Patterns. The leader reads off a set of three statements. Each member decides which one of these statements he considers most important and which one least important. The group is then divided into subgroups according to their patterns of choices. An illustrative set of items might be: "To be generous toward other people." "To be my own boss." "To have understanding friends." All those who chose, "To be generous toward other people," as most important and, "To be my own boss," as least important gather together in the same subgroup to discuss the reasons for their choices. Similar subgroups are formed for every combination of choices. After five minutes of discussion the subgroups gather together to respond to another set of items. Below are examples of other such sets:

To be well liked.

To be free from having to obey rules.

To be in a position to tell others what to do.

To do what is morally right.

To go out of my way to help others.

To have people willing to offer me a helping hand.

After several sets of values have been responded to, the subgroups reassemble to discuss the total experience. Such discussion may center on the content of the subgroup discussions, the factors which underlie different value patterns and the origins of such differences, or on the nature of the interaction among the members of each group.

This experiment, in forcing the student to make choices, can help him to become more aware of those values which guide his efforts and give them meaning. Also, students within the same subgroup usually become aware of the fact that significantly different antecedents, motivations, and meanings may underlie their common sets of choices. Another useful outcome stems from the experience of finding one's self in different groups depending on the set of values from which the choices had been selected. On observing the fluctuating composition of subgroup membership, the student comes face-to-face with the diversity and complexity of the value pattern interrelationships which define individual personality. Finally, this experiment is an excellent one for bringing people together and introducing them to each other in a rather novel context.

Volunteering for an Unknown Experiment. The leader informs the group, "Each of you will be required to participate briefly in an experiment. I will tell you about the experiment after we decide the order in which each of you will participate. Who volunteers to be first, who second. etc.?" As each person volunteers, the leader lists the person's name on the blackboard. When the whole group has volunteered, the leader invites them to guess at the nature of the experiment. After the variety of guesses have been discussed, the leader divides the members into three subgroups: those who were the first to volunteer, those who were last, and the group of in-between volunteers. Each subgroup is instructed to discuss amongst themselves what subjectively experienced factors were involved in its particular order of commitment. After fifteen minutes the whole class convenes to discuss its reactions.

The leader may be alert to a wide variety of possibilities in the discussion which follows. He may, for example, focus on the issue of how different people relate to the unknown, what anxieties, competitive strivings, or eager anticipations are experienced, and how these are handled either by volunteering early, late, or in-between. He may be interested in drawing the group's attention to the diverse dynamic origins which can underlie similar commitments.

Word Suppression. The leader instructs the group, "Select some one word. Select a word which stands for something in your life that you would like to control, overcome, or eliminate. Now close your eyes and for the next two minutes do all you can, using whatever procedure you wish not to think of the word you selected." After the two minutes are up, the group is asked to discuss its experiences. Most students fail to shut their chosen words out of consciousness, though a wide variety of ingenious methods are used, for example, humming a tune, counting to 100, and repeating the Lord's Prayer. For some, the selected word seems to exert a compulsive hold by virture of its intense appetitive appeal or symbolic value. For others, it is experienced as a conflict between complying with and rebelling against an authority's prohibition.

Discussion may pursue such questions as the following: What determined your choice of words? Does the mode of suppression which you adopted reflect a characteristic pattern in your life? What experiences of inner conflict in everyday life does this experiment remind you of? Does the inability to suppress the word reflect a "weakness" of will power? At some point during the discussion, the leader may say, "You notice that a part of you tried to avoid thinking of the word, while still another part of you kept intruding with the word, and still another part of you was engaged in observing this conflict. What does this remind you of in your everyday life?"

In general, this experiment draws the group's attention to the role of conflicts in people's lives, in particular those conflicts which involve efforts at suppressing some insistent drive and at defending one's self against the return of the suppressed.

Anger. The leader asks the group to complete sentences relating to the experience of anger, for example:

I become irritated when ....
When I get very angry, I....
When you are hot under the collar, it is best to....
I used to get angry at my mother when....
I could get angry with the teacher of this class if....

Each of these sentences can be the subject for a go-around and discussion. Then each student writes down an estimate of the number of times he becomes irritated or annoyed during an average week. The frequencey distribution of these estimates is placed on the blackboard and discussed. Students are next asked to explore with the group as many specific instances as they can in which they experienced some degree of annoyance, even if only fleetingly, with one or another member of the class or the leader. It helps if the leader starts the ball rolling by sharing his experiences of annoyance with the group or specific members.

Students find it easy to intellectualize about anger in general. The aim of this experiment is to encourage the dissipation of guilt or other factors which inhibit the sharing of intimate experiences and feelings about anger. This experiment can be useful in focussing students' attention on the degree to which they are aware of their anger, the meaning and function of anger in their lives, and the ease, extent, and manner in which it is expressed. Similar procedures may be organized around other emotions such as fear and affection.

Listening Emotions. Members write down as many emotions as they can think of within one minute's time. They then report what happened while they engaged in the task. The leader asks members to add up the number of emotions listed. He writes the frequency distribution of these totals on the blackboard. The group considers what might be reflected in the fact that some students' lists of emotions are much longer than others. Members next compare the number of positive emotions on their lists with those that are negative and consider what a preponderance in one direction or the other might reflect. A count is then taken of the most frequently occurring emotions in the group's lists. (These "populars" usually include love, hate, anger, and fear.) The leader emphasizes that these, feelings are key affective reactions which all humans need to come to grips with in their lives. He asks such questions as, "Which of these feelings do you feel comfortable feelings?" "Which make you feel uncomfortable?" In what different ways do you express these feelings?" Members are asked to notice the order in which the three most popular emotions appear in their own lists: "Does the sequence reflect some actual priority of one emotion over another in your life?" Those who ommitted any of the "popular" emotions are invited to consider the question, "Is it possible that the omission of this particular feeling might point to its special significance in your life?"

What are You Feeling Right Now? The leader asks the students to close their eyes and to imagine themselves in the following situations: "You are in class now, and suddenly a violent thunderstorm breaks out. The rain is coming down in buckets. Listen to that crash of thunder! It's really pouring outside." After portraying this event verbally, the leader tells the members to open their eyes. He promptly asks, "What are you feeling now? Right this minute?" Students will usually report their thoughts rather than their feeling reactions. For example, one student replied, "I should have brought my umbrella." In response the leader needs to actively draw this oversight or omission to the student's attention. Thus, in this instance, the leader responded, "You are telling us what you think you should have done, but you haven't said how you actually feel." The student answered, "Well, I don't feel afraid or anything like that." The leader pointed out, "Now you are telling us how you don't feel, but I still want to know how you do feel." The student then exclaimed, "Well, guess I feel disgusted with myself for not having listened to the weather report." Sometimes a student claims that he did not feel anything. The leader may then comment, "Only dead people don't feel anything. When you say you don't feel anything, this probably means that, for some reason, you are not letting yourself be aware of what you are feeling."

The above procedure can be repeated several times with the leader inviting the group to imagine themselves in a number of different situations likely to stir up feelings. After a number of such exercises and rapid fire exchanges between leader and members in which he repeatedly confronts them with their failure to report feelings, the group gradually begins to catch on to the kinds of data that are called for in response to the question, "What are you feeling now?"

This experiment can sensitize students to the difference between affective and cognitive reactions, and to the use of cognitive reactions as a defense against coming to terms with one's feelings.

Attitudes Toward One's Body. This experiment follows the same procedure described in the Value Patterns Experiment, except that the following sets of items are used:

To take a bath
To have my hair cut (or done)
To brush my teeth

To suck a sourball
To chew an almond
To swallow ice cream

To take a bath
To take a shower
To have a massage

To stretch
To yawn
To breathe deeply before an open window

Planning a Party. Five students volunteer to role-play a "class committee" meeting at a member's home to plan a party for the Workshop group. They are instructed to make the party plans as realistic or as fantastic as they wish. The volunteers form a small circle in the middle of the room while the rest of the class sits in a circle around them. The surrounding spectator group is divided into a convenient number of subgroups with each instructed to focus its observations on one of the committee members.

The "committee" discussions often turn out to be quite humorous. Nonetheless, real conflicts almost invariably develop among members around one or another issue. For example, the student protested against his committee's "prosaic" plans and pressed for a party aboard an airliner! After the class has eavesdropped on the "meeting" for about twenty minutes, the leader halts the "meeting", and throws the floor open to discussion. Each subgroup gives its particular impressions of the committee member to whom it paid special attention. Group phenomena such as rivalry for leadership and the development of alliances are brought up for exploration. Members are also encouraged to give their reactions to the different committee participants. At some appropriate point, committee members are invited to share with the group their covert, subjective reactions to what transpired. If there is time, another group of five volunteers can repeat the experiment.

This experiment is a training exercise in observing a group in action in which the observers have an opportunity to check their reactions against the reactions of others and the private experiences of the group participants themselves. It introduces the students to the phenomena of group dynamics. Observations of individual roles in the context of group experiences often leads to significant self-insight.

Second-hand Impressions. This experiment was inspired by Dinnerstein. The leader tells the group. "Imagine that a new family, the Joneses, has moved next door to you. You have not met them, but you are curious to know what they are like. You try to develop some impressions from things that you overhear neighbors saying in conversation as to the kind of people they are. The neighbor's remark you happen to overhear about the Joneses is 'Don't the Joneses have a nice looking bunch of kids?' Now on the basis of this single remark, would you write a brief statement of your impression of the Joneses at this point?" After a minute or so, the leader continues. "The next day you overhear another neighbor remark, 'I had an interesting conversation with Jones today.' Now on the basis of the two remarks write you impression of the Jones family." The leader continues in a similar fashion with each of the following "overheard" remarks: "I hear the Joneses are very friendly people." "Don't the Joneses have an awful looking bunch of kids?" "I had a boring conversation with Jones today." "I hear the Joneses are snobs."

After writing out their sixth impression, as many members as there is time for read aloud their series of responses and report what happened to them during this experience. Some students' impressions shift in line with the shifting neighbors' judgments. Others persist in seeing the Joneses in positive terms throughout and discredit or discount the neighbors who made negative judgments. A few students may insist on postponing forming any impression until they have seen the Joneses for themselves.

This experiment is intended to bring into focus students' varying degrees of dependence on the social field and their pessimistic or optimistic orientations toward people.

First Impressions. If it seems appropriate, the leader may devote a part of the first (or even the second session) to eliciting members' first impressions of each other. He asks if there are any people in the group who would be interested in learning what other students' first impressions of them were. He can point out that this is a one-time opportunity in the course, and that while other people's first impressions may or may not be valid, it may still be of interest to note what they are. There are usually several students who invite such impressions and several members willing to give them. After members have given their frank impressions of a student, the leader invites the student and the group to give their reactions to the experience.

Who Talks How Much? The leader instructs: "Assume that all the words uttered by all of us in this course thus far could be put into a bag. Now estimate what percentage of these words were uttered by each person in our group including the leader and yourself. List each member's name in the group (don't forget your name and the leader's) and next to each name note your estimated percentage. Remember that all your percentages should add up to 100." When the group has completed this task, the leader records each student's estimate for every other person in the group on the blackboard, and the findings are then explored.

Estimates which are markedly out of line with the group concensus can point up students' exaggerated images of their own degree of verbal participation or the exaggerated reactions of one student to another. Variations in the number of words ascribed to the leader are especially noteworthy and may be explored in relation to varying kinds and intensities of needs on the part of students for the leader's active verbalization.

Unlike previously described experiments concerned with projective factors in the formation of impressions of others, this experiment involves subjective estimates of a homogeneous sample of objectively observable behavior. The revelation of projective factors in the formation of such estimates can be particularly effective in underscoring some of the dynamics of interpersonal relationships.

Correcting a Correct Sentence. This experiment was inspired by a "trick" described by Rice. The leader asks the class to write the follow-instructions so that they may refer back to them as often as they wish: "Look over each of the words in the sentence on the blackboard carefully. Can you find just one word in the sentence which, if you crossed it out, might correct the sentence?" The leader then writes the following sentence on the blackboard, "The words in this sentence do not add up to ten." He cautions the members not to talk to their neighbors during the experiment.

There are usually a few students who do not tamper with the sentence because they recognize that it is already correct as it stands. Most people in the group, however, cross out the word "not" in their efforts to comply with the instruction's apparent directive. The leader raises the question as to why some students were misled and others not. What usually emerges from the ensuing discussion is that a number of students recognized that the sentence was correct, but mistrusted their own judgment and submitted to the authority of the instructions. As one student put it, "I thought the sentence was all right, but since you had instructed us to correct it, I assumed that there must be something wrong with it that I hadn't been able to see." If, as sometimes happens a student protests, "I don't see that this experiment means much except that you deliberately set up a trap, and we fell for it," the leader can acknowledge that he did, indeed, set up a trap, but he may add, "Still what was it in you that made you vulnerable to falling into my trap, and how come some students didn't fall for the trap?" The leader also inquires of the minority who did not tamper with the sentence what factors governed their behavior. Such an inquiry may elicit that some of these students were chiefly influenced by intense suspiciousness of what the leader was up to.

This experiment is intended to draw members' attention to uncritical attitudes toward authority and to the anxiety which countering authority, even on the basis of their own immediate experience, tends to generate. Even if one accepts a certain reasonableness in the majority's taking the leader's honesty of instructions for granted, it is still interesting to note how the students' submissive orientation to authority can be so powerful as to lead them to mistrust the evidence of their own senses. This experiment may also point up the excessive suspiciousness and distrustfulness toward authority existing in some students and the origins and meaning of such distrust in their lives.

Interviewing the Leader. The leader offers to be interviewed "along any lines whatever" by three volunteers, one at a time. However, he does not guarantee to answer all questions. He invites the group's immediate reactions to this prospect. Some members are extremely interested in learning about the leader's personal life; others feel that it is not right to invade the leader's privacy; some fear they will learn about his weaknesses. When faced by a student interviewer, the leader answers any and all questions as frankly as he comfortably can He exercises his right not to answer any questions which he regards as too personal. The group shares its reactions and observations after each interview.

There are wide variations in the students' styles of interviewing and the topics they cover. For example, one student scrupulously avoided any personal inquiries and dealt in a somewhat challenging manner with the leader's academic qualifications, while another student focused with friendly interest on the leader's early family life. The implications and possible origins of such variations in warmth and intimacy of relationship to an authority figure are discussed. In addition, this experiment constitutes still another practice exercise in observing an actual instance of interpersonal communication and in analyzing what dynamics underlie the process.

VOLUNTEERING EXERCISE

Purpose

The purposes of the volunteering exercises are:

a) To initiate group interaction
b) To demonstrate individual responses to unknown variables, ie. task, risk, response of group, etc.
c) To demonstrate group response to act of volunteering.
d) To demonstrate "followership" inclinations.

Group size

This exercise may be carried out in front of large, medium or small group session, limited only by the ability of the group to hear and observe. Two, three or four volunteers may be asked for. The larger the group, the more volunteers may be asked for.

Age of the group

Middle elementary (8 or 9 years of age) through adults.

Time required

Variable, depending upon how fast individuals respond to request but seldom longer than ten minutes.

Instructions to the facilitator

Say: "I'd like to ask for (number) volunteers to come up here, please." (Wait) When number of volunteers have responded, say: "All right, that's the end of the exercise."
Ask questions such as: (To volunteers:) "How did you feel?" "What were you thinking?" (To group:) "What were you feeling?" What physical actions did you observe?" "What do you suppose were the reasons for those actions?" Etc.

RUMOR CLINIC EXERCISE

Purpose

To illustrate the distortions in communicating information as it is transmitted from the original source through several individuals to a final destination.

Group size

Six participants from the normal size classroom.

Age of group

Any age through adult.

Time required:

Varies with interest. Normally, half hour.

Instructions to facilitator

Prepare message before exercise
Select six students who volunteer as participants.
Five of six participants are asked to go into an isolation room.
Read the message to the remaining participant. Call in the second participant. The first participant repeats in his own way, without help what he heard from the facilitator. Repeat third, fourth, fifth. As the fifth participant repeats what he heard to the sixth participant, the sixth participant writes the message on the board.

Compare board written message with original.

Discuss.

DESCRIPTIVE METAPHORS

Purpose

To give participants an opportunity to experience how others view them. (Feedback)
To practice the skill of communicating our ideas and feelings.
To develop the skill of perception.
To develop the skill of listening.
To develop the skill of abstract association.

Group size

Optimum size, 10-12 participants. If regular class size, divide into three groups of 10.

Age of group

Can be used with young children but works better with middle elementary through adult age groups.

Time required

Varied, depending upon skill and interest span of participants. Limit to one-half hour or no longer than three-quarters of an hour.

Instructions to facilitator

Divide class into groups. Say: "Doing descriptive metaphors is an exercise in expressing perceptions about each other. This is a voluntary exercise but I hope you will all participate. Choose one person to leave the room. When he or she has left, choose another person you wish to describe. When the absent person returns to the room he asks descriptive metaphor questions. The group will offer verbal abstract perceptions until the person is identified by the person who previously left the room. Ideally each participant should have an opportunity to experience both roles!! (Example: If this person were a car, what would it be?)

DRUGS IN SCHOOL

What should be our priorities?

Below are some of the many suggestions and ideas that have been heard from time to time relative to the dealing with the problem of drugs in school. Some you will agree with; others you will not. But assume these are all possibilities open to you. Rank them 1 to 12 according to what you think should be their priority.

Consensus Rank	Individual Rank		
________	________	1.	Educate students to be more discerning about drugs and in the process perhaps turn them "off" drugs.
________	________	2.	Involve students in making decisions, relative to the content & organization of a drug education program.
________	________	3.	Emphasize the negative effects of drugs, particularly marijuana.
________	________	4.	Emphasize alternatives to drug use.
________	________	5.	Develop a program to treat the medical & psychological problems which confront many users & potential users.
________	________	6.	Call in the police to control the situation, if necessary.
________	________	7.	Emphasize the moral issues involved in the use of pot.
________	________	8.	Develop a drug information center for the community.
________	________	9.	Make a distinction between pot use and use of harder drugs.
________	________	10.	Incorporate concepts of drug education in the total curriculum.
________	________	11.	Establish a "hot line" for students who have a"bad trip".
________	________	12.	Focus the program more on information and treatment and less on policing.
________	________	13.	Invite drug addicts to address the student body.
________	________	14.	Invite several medical doctors, pharmacists, and psychiatrists to address students.

Post-Crescent   Sunday, 9/20/70

WHO WROTE the DECLARATION-LENIN ?

An Associated Press release tells of a reporter in Miami who conducted a most interesting experiment with the Declaration of Independence.

He had it typed up in the form of a petition, without other identification. Then he approaced 50 people and asked for their signatures. Only one person was willing to sign.

The reasons people gave for not signing are something else!

Two referred to the document as "commie junk." One person threatened to call the police. Another, friendlier, cautioned the reporter: "Be careful who you show that antigovernment stuff, Buddy."

The man who was willing to sign asked for a quarter!

People who took the trouble to read the first paragraphs had reactions like "This is the work of a raver," "Somebody ought to tell the FBI about this sort of rubbish, "I don't go for religion."

Perhaps even more astounding than the above is the fact that the reporter got his idea for the above-detailed experiment from a questionnaire which had been circulated among 300 young adults at a church gathering.

At this gathering the youths, mostly high school seniors were shown an excerpt from the Declaration, again unidentified, and asked to describe what sort of people they thought would write such a statement.

Their answers? "Someone against our country." "A hippie." "A redneck revolutionist." Someone trying to [illegible] a change in government----probably for his own selfish reason." Some [illegible] percent of the youths thought the excerpt was something written by-hold your hat--Lenin!

By the way, how well do you and I know the Declaration of Independence?

PERSPECTIVE
(Writer Unknown)

Dear Mother & Dad:

Since I left for college I have been remiss in writing and I am sorry for my thoughtlessness in not having written before. I will bring you up to date now, but before you read on, please sit down. You are not to read any further unless you are sitting down. Okay?

Well then, I am getting along pretty well now. The skull fracture and the concussion I got when I jumped out of the window of my dormitory when it caught on fire shortly after my arrival here is pretty well healed now. I only spent two weeks in the hospital and now I can see almost normally and only get those sick headaches once a day. Fortunately, the fire in the dormitory, and my jump, was witnessed by an attendant at the gas station near the dorm, and he was the one who called the Fire Department and the ambulance. He also visited me in the hospital and since I had nowhere to live because of the burnt-out dormitory, he was kind enough to invite me to share his apartment with him. It's really a basement room, but it's kind of cute. He is a very fine boy and we have fallen deeply in love and are planning to get married. We haven't set the exact date yet, but it will be before my pregnancy begins to show.

Yes, Mother and Dad, I am pregnant, I know how much you are looking forward to being grandparents and I know you will welcome the baby and give it the same love and devotion and tender care you gave me when I was a child. The reason for the delay in our marriage is that my boy friend has a minor infection which prevents us from passing our pre-marital blood tests and I carelessly caught it from him.

I know that you will welcome him into our family with open arms. He is kind and although not well educated, he is ambitious. Although he is of a different race and religion than ours, I know your often-expressed tolerance will not permit you to be bothered by that.

Now that I have brought you up to date, I want to tell you that there was no dormitory fire, I did not have a concussion or skull fracture, I was not in the hospital, I am not pregnant, I am not engaged, I am not infected, and there is no boy friend in my life. However, I am getting a D in History and F in Science and I want you to see those marks in their proper perspective.

Your loving daughter,

Susie

"NAME TAGS"

Note

There are numerous methods or ways of handling name tags. I have separated them somewhat, although combinations might also be useful.

Purpose

1) To facilitate the beginning of a group.
2) To help create a freer atmosphere at the onset.
3) To involve participants at the very beginning of a meeting.
4) To facilitate everyone being called by their name (more personal approach).

Group size

Unlimited.

Age of group

Old enough to write and read.

Time required

Several minutes up to the entire session.

Instructions to facilitator

(Note: Several formats are indicated here.)

1) Ask participants to place names on "Hello" stickers or tag board cut to workable size.
For this particular format the name tags may be merely a way of identification. Or, it could be interesting to see if some people felt compelled to use last names, titles, etc.

2) Ask participants to place one word on name tag which describes them as a person. Participants should then circulate and meet the people on the basis of the words. Good for introspection, perception, etc.

3) Ask participants to place name on tag.
*Ask participants to respond to following by placing words and/or short phrases on cards. (Same side as names.)
a) Write 4 words that describe you as a person.
b) Write 4 words that express your feelings now.
c) Write 4 words which end in "ing" that say something about you.
d) Write 4 words that express what you'd like to be.
**Ask participants questions, such as:
a) I learned that I....
*Ask participants to mix and get to know one another. better--discuss name tags.

STEM SENTENCES

1. When I enter a new group I feel

2. I feel most pleased with myself when

3. When someone needs help I

4. Those who really know me think I am

2-4-8 COMMUNICATION EXERCISE (1/2 hour)

Before the Task

Since we are speaking of the individual and since teaching is not telling, but communication through understanding, we are going to begin our first task--Communication Exercise--on the individual level.

I. 1. All come to the front
   2. Choose one person whom you do not know very well.
      A. You'll have 15 minutes to learn as much as possible about each other.

II. 1. Each pair choose another pair.
    2. You'll have 15 minutes to learn as much as possible about each other.

III. 1. Each group of four join another group of four.
     2. You'll have 15 minutes to learn as much as possible about each other.

After the Task

Purpose of Drill:

1. Degree of difficulty which exists when trying to establish communication in different sized groups.

2. Two discover most---eight most difficult (name, rank, serial number) because of time.

3. Eight--structured--leader emerges

4. How about 16 or 32

5. Classroom discussion
   A. Teachers who have just had a "wonderful discussion" in such-and-such a class.
      1) How many actually "discussed" -- less than a handful.

STEM SENTENCES

1. My name is ______________________________

2. My titles are ______________________________

3. My marital status is ______________________________

4. My home town is ______________________________

5. The reason I'm here is ______________________________
____
____

6. Right now I'm feeling ______________________________
____

7. When I am in a new group I ______________________________
____

8. When I enter a room full of people I usually feel ______________
____
____

9. In groups I feel most comfortable when the leader ______________
____
____

10. I am happiest when ______________________________
____

11. The thing that turns me on most is ______________________________
____

12. When I am rejected I usually ______________________________
____

13. To me, belonging is ______________________________
____

14. Breaking rules that seem arbitrary makes me feel ____________________

____

15. The thing that turns me off the most is ____________________

____

16. I feel most affectionate when ____________________

____

17. To me, taking orders from another person ____________________

____

18. I am rebellious when ____________________

____

19. People like me when I ____________________

____

____

20. Alcohol is a drug that makes me ____________________

____

21. Tobacco and I ____________________

____

22. People who smoke marijuana are ____________________

____

23. My greatest strength is ____________________

____

24. Those who really know me think I am ____________________

____

____

____

____

BEGINNING A GROUP

1. As you enter this series of meetings, you must have some needs and/or expectations which you hope will be met. What are they? Another way of asking this question: What, in your opinion, would be ideal outcomes of this series of meetings?

2. List what you consider to be two or three key educational strategies for drug abuse education.

3. What do you feel are the responsibilities of the group leader for this six-session workshop?

BRAINSTORMING

Purpose:

To teach students to respect and build on their own and others' creative abilities and to acquire the experimental frame of mind necessary for effective problem solving. Brainstorming can often bring out some very useful suggestions as well as increase the students' involvement in learning.

Setting:

This exercise can be used with any age group and can be completed within a class period.

Procedure:

1. Choose a specific planning task for the class beforehand. (Some suggestions: planning for special events such as parent-visiting day, how to make the classroom more attractive, ways to cooperate more effectively in a group.)

2. Introduce the topic of brainstorming. It can be described as a first step in problem solving, a method for getting out the maximum number of ideas for consideration. Emphasize that the only rule is to spill out ideas as quickly as possible without criticism of your own thoughts or the thoughts of others.

3. Divide the class into random groups of three to five students. Each group should have newsprint or wrapping paper. Have each group select a recorder.

4. Start with a practice session, instructing the groups to think of as many things as they can that the class does in a day. The recorder lists these on the paper.

5. After five minutes stop the listing, and have the groups quickly count and share the number of items they recorded.

6. Ask these questions of the group:
   Did everyone get a chance to put in his ideas?
   Were you able to avoid criticizing others' contributions?

7. After the practice session, announce the classroom project you have chosen and take a few minutes for questions and clarification.

8. Give the groups ten minutes to record their ideas. (If any groups lose steam ahead of time, encourage them to keep trying.)

9. Ask each group to choose its two most important ideas to be shared with the entire class.

10. Post the lists so that everyone can see how many ideas emerged in a short time.

11. Select a planning committee to combine ideas.

Analysis:

Ask the class the following questions:

1. Was this a good way to get your ideas listened to?

2. Did many good ideas come out?

3. Can you think of other times we might use this method of sharing ideas in the class?

Materials:

Newsprint (or wrapping paper) and marking pens or crayons for recorders

BRAINSTORMING PROBLEMS

1. In what ways can we get high school kids more interested in school?

2. In what ways can we make what we teach more relevant to students?

3. In what ways can we reward our best teachers?

4. In what ways can we reward our best students?

IDEAL SCHOOL EXERCISE

(½ Hour)

Before the task

1. Read directions
2. Appoint one to report to the whole group

Discuss after the task

Purpose of drill

1. Reduces the likelihood of personalizing to one's own district
2. Allows for verbalization of educational goals
3. Allows for the fruit for real change within the school
4. Dreaming big dreams is where the change begins

Once a group becomes a "unit"--cohesive with mutual respect--members are more likely to express themselves openly. Ask yourself, "Would you have felt as free to discuss your ideas of an ideal school with a group other than your own?"

SMALL - GROUP DYNAMICS

"IDEAL SCHOOL" EXERCISE

You have real concerns for doing a good job as an educator. You also probably have some definite ideas as to what would make an ideal set-up in a school for both teachers and students.

Imagine that you are called into a completely new area without schools. A new district has been formed and you have been delegated to recommend plans for a new school.

The community doesn't want just a traditional school. They want the most advanced school anyone can imagine. However, at this point, they are not interested in buildings or schedules. They want to know what kind of a school atmosphere you envision. What will students do? How will they function? How will teachers interact with students? What learning experience will pupils have? After this is decided, then you will be asked to design a school to fit the function.

1. For the next few minutes, sit silently and think about what your model school would be like.

2. Now, share your ideas, dreams and thoughts with other members of the group.

GROUP TESTING EXERCISE

Purpose:

The purposes of this exercise are as follows:
a) To use an evaluation tool as a teaching technique.
b) To acquire knowledge.
c) To practice decision-making.
d) To participate in group interaction.
e) To practice communicating ideas.

Group Size:

The size of groups which may use this exercise can vary from a small group of three or four to a larger classroom size of 30 or more. If there are 20 or more in a group, break into smaller groups of 10 or less.

Age of Group:

Ages may range from eight or nine through adult.

Time Required:

Varies, dependent upon the length of the evaluation instrument.

Instructions to Facilitator:

Prepare evaluation instrument in advance of class. Include all salient points covered in previous presentations. Use completion, matching and true-false questions.

Provide a number of resources to which participants may refer.

Have one person start the exercise by reading the question and providing his answer. Participants do not necessarily have to agree with the person giving the answer. Unanimity and/or consensus is not required. Have participants use as many resources as are available to verify or dispute answers.

Following completion of exercise have participants complete evaluation instrument to be handed in for evaluation of degree of learning which has taken place.

THEORY SESSION

GROUP DYNAMICS

DEFINITION OF TERMS

- A group is a collection of individuals with certain definable characteristics.
- Dynamics is a term which means forces or actions.
- Group Dynamics is a branch of the behavioral sciences which attempts to identify, study and deal effectively with individual and group behavior.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE GROUP

- Has a definable membership
- Has clearly defined goals
- Provides a feeling of belonging
- Practices shared leadership
- Is flexible in choosing procedures
- Has high level of communication
- Involves its members and others
- Recognizes individual needs
- Evaluates
- Acts as a unit

FORCES OPERATING WITHIN GROUPS

- Intra-Personal Forces: Actions which result from forces operating from within the individual.
- Inter-Personal Forces: Actions which result from forces operating between individuals.
- Extra-Personal Forces: Actions which result from forces which operate from outside the individual or group.

ACTIVITIES DEFINED

Group Maintenance - Activities which contribute to the building or maintenance of the group.

1. Encouraging - Responding to others and being friendly.
2. Compromising - Seeking to resolve conflict by yielding status or admitting error.
3. Harmonizing - Making efforts to reconcile divergent ideas or points of view.
4. Gate Keeping - Regulating participation by limiting excessive talkers and encouraging others, giving members a chance to talk.
5. Regulating - Helping groups stay on the topic, making "ground rules."
6. Energizing - Stimulating group to respond and to maintain group cohesion. "Come on, y'all."

Group Task - Activities which facilitate and coordinate group efforts.

7. Initiating Action - Starting the ball rolling, suggesting procedures to follow.
8. Setting Goals - Helping decide just what should be done.
9. Assessing Resources - Seeing what the group has to work with.
10. Asking Information - Requesting clarification, facts or suggestions, pertinent to problem being discussed.
11. Giving Information - Offering facts and providing relevant information.
12. Summarizing - Pulling related ideas together and restating suggestions after the group has discussed them.

Individual - Activities in which "members" attempt to satisfy individual needs which are unrelated to group tasks such as:

13. Horsing Around - Making efforts to distract other group members with inappropriate behavior.
14. Blocking - Disagreeing and opposing anything that is brought up.
15. Seeking Recognition - Calling attention to one's self, talking to be heard and/or boasting.
16. Dominating - Subordinating or downgrading contributions made by other group members.
17. Pulling into Own Shell - Refusing to take active part.
18. Making Irrelevant Comments - Injecting thoughts not in keeping with current topic of discussion.

WHO DOES WHAT

This chart may be used as a guide in observing groups in action. Note who participates in different activities and how they do it--what they say or do and how it affects the group.

ACTIVITIES

Group Maintenance

1. Encouraging
2. Compromising
3. Harmonizing
4. Gate Keeping
5. Regulating
6. Energizing

Group Task

7. Initiating Action
8. Setting Goals
9. Assessing Resources
10. Asking Information
11. Giving Information
12. Summarizing

Individual

13. Horsing Around
14. Blocking
15. Seeking Recognition
16. Dominating
17. Pulling into own shell
18. Making Irrelevant Comments

Group Members	Maintenance						Group Task						Individual					
Name or Number	1:	2:	3:	4:	5:	6:	7:	8:	9:	10:	11:	12:	13:	14:	15:	16:	17:	18:
TOTAL	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING SMALL GROUP COMMUNICATION

1. Take turns

2. Listen--show your concern
    a. Eye contact
    b. Body posture
    c. Facial expressions

3. Give the speaker positive feedback
    a. "I liked it when you ..."
    b. "It helped me when you ..."
    c. "We were a better group because you ..."
    d. "I appreciate you (your) ..."

GROUP MEMBER INTERVIEW GUIDE

____
Interviewee

____
Interviewer

Directions:

1. Decide who will be the first to be interviewed.
2. Conduct a ten-minute interview, focusing on the questions below. The interviewer should take notes and feedback to the interviewee a paraphrase after each question. The goals are openness and accurate listening.
3. After ten minutes repeat the process by switching roles.
4. Take about three minutes to talk about the interviewing experience.
5. In the total group give a brief report on the person whom you interviewed.

Interview Questions:

1. What personal goals do you have which you might work toward in this group? (Be as specific as possible.)

2. What concerns do you have about this group? (Be as specific as possible.)

3. What personal concerns are you willing to share with the group right now? (For example, concerns about particular group members, about how you see yourself, about your impact on the group, your interpersonal relationships, etc.)

GROUP CLIMATE INVENTORY

Directions: Think about how your fellow group members normally behave toward you. In the parentheses in front of the items below place the number corresponding to your perceptions of the group as a whole, using the following scale.

5 They can always be counted on to behave this way.

4 Typically I would expect them to behave this way.

3 I would usually expect them to behave this way.

2 They would seldom behave this way.

1 They would rarely behave this way.

0 I would never expect them to behave this way.

I would expect my fellow group members to

1. (___) _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ level with me.
2. _ _ _ (___) _ _ _ _ _ _ get the drift of what I am trying to say.
3. _ _ _ _ _ _ (___) _ _ _ interrupt or ignore my comments.
4. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ (___) accept me for what I am.
5. (___) _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ feel free to let me know when I "bug" them.
6. _ _ _ (___) _ _ _ _ _ _ misconstrue things I say or do.
7. _ _ _ _ _ _ (___) _ _ _ be interested in me.
8. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ (___) provide an atmosphere where I can be myself.
9. (___) _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ keep things to themselves to spare my feelings.
10. _ _ _ (___) _ _ _ _ _ _ perceive what kind of person I really am.
11. _ _ _ _ _ _ (___) _ _ _ include me in what's going on.
12. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ (___) act "judgmental" with me.
13. (___) _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ be completely frank with me.
14. _ _ _ (___) _ _ _ _ _ _ recognize readily when something is bothering me.
15. _ _ _ _ _ _ (___) _ _ _ respect me as a person, apart from my skills or status.
16. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ (___) ridicule me or disapprove if I show my peculiarities.

(___) Genuineness
(___) Understanding
(___) Valuing
(___) Acceptance

COMMITTEE - TASK EXERCISE
(1 hour)

Phase I (½ hour)

DIRECTIONS:

A. From this list you are to come to a concensus concerning the three most important characteristics of an effective teacher. Rank them 1-2-3.

B. Then rank the three least important characteristics 10-11-12. 12 should be the least important of all.

Phase II (¼ hour)

DIRECTIONS:

A. Switch four of each group to another group.

B. Task--Form a concensus.

Phase III (¼ hour)

DIRECTIONS:

A. Return to your original group.

B. Share your experiences.

Purpose of Drill:

1. Esprit de corps--Collective decision
    a. Persons are more committed to decisions that they are involved in than they are to decisions which are handed down.
    b. Concensus provides a total committment to a group decision.
2. Development of committee esprit de corps
    a. Committees in school--appoint today, report tomorrow.
3. Characteristics?
    a. Depends on point of view--positive or negative.

SMALL - GROUP DYNAMICS

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE TEACHER

From the list below, select the three most important characteristics of an effective teacher. Rate them #1, 2, and 3.

Then select the three least important characteristics and rate them #10, 11, and 12. #12 should be the least important of all.

Rank

____ Is a good talker.

____ Should belong to and support professional teacher organizations.

____ Improve himself by continuing his formal education, reading current journals, attending workshops, training programs, etc.

____ Relates well with colleagues and superiors.

____ Does research in his specialized field.

____ Takes part in after-school and community affairs.

____ Shows ability to handle the administrative aspects of teaching.

____ Tries new teaching techniques and methods.

____ Gives clear-cut, understandable instructions.

____ Shows willingness to change his viewpoint.

____ Reflects a well-developed sense of humor.

____ Shows that he is willing to trust students to work on their own.

GROUP PRESSURE

Listen to tape about group pressure being applied to get a student to smoke a joint. This can be prepared by the teacher.

Will you take one?

Will you smoke one?

What kind of a person says, "No"?

What kind of a person says, "Yes"?

What are you absolutely sure you are willing to sacrifice to lose your friendship in the group?

What happens to you afterward--

if you smoke the joint?

if you DON'T smoke the joint?

What are the arguments your friends may use to convince you to smoke?

What are your arguments for refusing?

GUIDE FOR GROUP OBSERVERS

1. Atmosphere

    a. Was the general atmosphere of the group cooperative or competitive, friendly or hostile?

    b. Did the atmosphere vary from time to time?

2. Participation

    a. Who participates most?

    b. Was their participation helpful? Useless?

    c. Why did they participate in that way?

    d. What effect did that kind of participation have on the group?

3. Interest and Unity

    a. Was the general interest high? Low?

    b. Did the interest lag at times? Was this due to lack of information, understanding, or stimulation?

    c. To what extent did the group feel united by a common purpose? Were there factors that blocked progress? What were they?

4. Progress

    a. How far did the group get?

Talking Things Over to Solve Common Problems...

GROUP DISCUSSION FOR TEENAGERS

Group discussion is particularly conducive to fostering wholesome human relations, since it helps young people gain genuine understanding of--and respect for--each other's feelings, needs, and viewpoints.

As boys and girls talk over, and search together for ways of solving their common problems, they learn to appreciate their own and each other's individuality, and at the same time to come to identify with the attitudes, values, and goals of the group. They also gain the reassurance of discovering that they are not alone in their problems, and that it is possible to learn constructive ways of handling upset feelings and working through emotional problems.

If you can establish a warm, friendly atmosphere, it will be easier for you to help young people accept each other as individuals and as valuable group members. All need to feel free to ask questions. (The only foolish question is the one that isn't asked.) Many need encouragement, subtly given, to verbalize either questions or opinions. Each student needs to be able to present his views and experiences without fear of being laughed at or criticized.

It takes time to establish the relationship you desire, and you do it differently with each group. Getting acquainted with the group members individually, as soon as possible, helps perhaps more than anything else.

Ways of getting acquainted vary, depending on the size of the group and on how many of the students you already know. Individual conversations with those you do not know are particularly helpful. Short talks by all pupils to the whole group give voices a chance to be heard and provide an opportunity to learn names quickly.

HELPFUL HINTS FOR THE DISCUSSION LEADER

Here are some useful pointers on how to make the most of group discussion, how to stimulate it and guide it along constructive channels:

1. Queries and comments brought up by students themselves offer specific clues for developing the conversation, since youths will naturally choose to discuss points that are most significant in light of their own needs, interests, and concerns. To lead a group effectively means that you help them think through their own experiences and help them see the significance of each experience in relation to the concepts being considered. Thus while it is your job to keep the discussion focused toward constructive thinking, at the same time it is equally important to avoid over-directing the group.

2. Although it is a simple matter to get the naturally voluble students to volunteer, it is not quite so easy to bring in those who are more reserved. One good way to bring in those youngsters who usually just sit and listen is to use prompting questions such as "John, I wonder how you feel about this?" or "Would you like to tell us, Sarah, how you think this problem could have been handled?" Refer questions back to the students now and then. For example, "That's an interesting viewpoint, Ellen. Do you have any evidence to support it?"

3. Don't hurry the discussion, expecting it always to proceed at a lively pace. The participants need time to think, to get up their courage to speak, to put their ideas into the right words. Remember that your youths may not have discussed many of these subjects in groups before. So silences often mean that the youngsters are turning things over in their minds and doing some serious creative thinking about the topic at hand.

4. Don't feel that you rush a discussion along to conclusion. If it is "going strong" and the group is interested, don't bring conversation to a quick stop in order to continue the lesson. What isn't covered during one class period can be picked up on a succeeding one. Do try, though, to summarize a bit and point out what has been arrived at before the bell brings the discussion period to a close.

5. Be careful to listen to each youth's contribution and try to tie it in with the main subject under consideration. Be as encouraging as you can with sincere remarks such as "That's a good comment you made, Virginia," or "Your point is so important, Fred, perhaps you'd like to explain it a bit further." This helps students gain a feeling of success and recognition, which is important to everyone--especially to a shy student or to one who is not well accepted by the group.

6. One of the most difficult things in leading a discussion is to keep a youth who is very tense about a problem from inadvertently revealing too much under the release of the moment. Sometimes a young person will mention things about himself or about his family which it would not be wise to discuss before the class.

   This does not occur often; but when it does happen, it can be an upsetting experience for the student and can cause him embarrassment afterwards. Some skill and tact are required to stem the flow--without making the youngster withdraw into himself--and to generalize the problem in order to relate it to the group.

   Perhaps you can pick out some point which the youngster has mentioned and use the point to stimulate a general discussion of problems experienced by other people, too. Try to pick out a point which is the least disturbing to the troubled student at the moment.

Afterwards, it may be possible to have a private talk with the upset youngster, at which time he will be able to get his problem off his chest. In some cases, you may be able to go even further and make some concrete suggestions which can encourage the young person and help him handle the difficulty.

You may recommend some books that shed light on his problem, or you may open his eyes to a possible approach that he himself had thought of. If there is a professional guidance worker on the staff of the high school, the student can be offered an appointment for an interview. Whatever the step that seems wisest, you, the leader can be a great help to a troubled adolescent just by letting him feel that you are an understanding friend.

ALLIGATOR RIVER

Purpose:

To demonstrate the technique of value exposing. To give participants an opportunity to assess the process of their own value establishment. To give participants an opportunity to observe how other people support their own value judgments. To practice communications skills. To practice contrasting, comparing, classifying, analyzing, and imagining.

Group Size:

This exercise can be accomplished in any normal classroom size. Suggest three groups of 10 each.

Age of Group:

Can be adapted to use with any age group.

Time Required:

Variable, depending upon age of group, interest span, and perception skills. Limit exercise and ensuing discussion to one class period.

Instructions to Facilitator:

"Once upon a time, a boy named Gregory and a girl named Abigail were very good friends. One day Abigail was going to visit her grandmother on the other side of the river. On the way, she met Gregory, and they walked together across the only bridge in the village. They planned that they would have a picnic when Abigail returned from her grandmother's house. While she was there, however, a storm came up and washed away the bridge. Abigail had no way to get back to the village. She wouldn't be able to keep her promise to Gregory.

"As she walked along the bank of the river, she met Sinbad. She asked him to take her across the river. He said he would, but he had no gas for his motor and didn't have any oars. Besides the river current was too fast to be able to use them, even if he had them. Sinbad said that if Abigail would steal some gas for his motor, he would be happy to take her across. She said she couldn't bring herself to do that and continued her search along the river bank in hope of finding some way to get across.

"Finally she met Ivan and told him her story. Ivan flatly told her he didn't want to get involved in her problem. So she went back to Sinbad finally and told him she agreed to do as he suggested. She stole the gas and Sinbad kept his part of the bargain.

"When she got back, she told Gregory everything that had happened to her. He became very angry and told Abigail he never wanted to see her again.

"She began to cry and as she was going home met Slug and told him her sad tale of woe. Slug was infuriated and ran to catch Gregory and beat him to a bloody pulp. Abigail had trailed along behind Slug to see what was going to happen. When she saw Gregory lying on the ground all bloody, she looked at him scornfully and said, 'Well, I guess you got what was coming to you.'"

On a piece of paper, list these five people: Gregory, Abigail, Sinbad, Ivan, and Slug in the order you think they should be. Put the worst person as number five and the best person as number one.

Discuss the answers—how many number one's for each person involved in the story, how many two's, etc.

CLARIFYING RESPONSES

Clarifying responses are used by students to stimulate and clarify their thoughts about values they hold, their own behavior and the behavior and values of their peers and colleagues. This is a guide to a basic course in value education.

1. Is this something that you prize?
2. Are you glad about that?
3. How did you feel when that happened?
4. Did you consider any alternatives?
5. Have you felt this way for a long time?
6. Was that something that you yourself selected or chose?
7. Did you have to choose that; was it a free choice?
8. Do you do anything about that idea?
9. Can you give me some examples of that idea?
10. What do you mean by _____: can you define that word?
11. Where would that idea lead; what would be its consequences?
12. Would you really do that or are you just talking?
13. Are you saying that . . . (repeat)?
14. Did you say that . . . (repeat in some distorted way)?
15. Have you thought much about that idea (or behavior)?
16. What are some good things about that notion?
17. What do we have to assume for things to work out that way?
18. Is what you express consistent with . . . (note something else the person said or did that may point to an inconsistency)?
19. What other possibilities are there?

20. Is that a personal preference or do you think most people should believe that?

21. How can I help you do something about your idea? What seems to be the difficulty?

22. Is there a purpose back of this activity?

23. Is that very important to you?

24. Do you do this often?

25. Would you like to tell others about your idea?

26. Do you have any reasons for (saying or doing) that?

27. Would you do the same thing over again?

28. How do you know it's right?

29. Do you value that?

30. Do you think people will always believe that? Or, "Would Chinese peasants and African hunters also believe that?" Or, "Did people long ago believe that?"

CHART I

Clarifying Responses Suggested by the Seven Valuing Processes

1. Choosing freely

   a. Where do you suppose you first got that idea?
   b. How long have you felt that way?
   c. What would people say if you weren't to do what you say you must do?
   d. Are you getting help from anyone? Do you need more help? Can I help?
   e. Are you the only one in your crowd who feels this way?
   f. What do your parents want you to be?
   g. Is there any rebellion in your choice?
   h. How many years will you give to it? What will you do if you're not good enough?
   i. Do you think the idea of having thousands of people cheering when you come out on the field has anything to do with your choice?

2. Choosing from alternatives

   a. What else did you consider before you picked this?
   b. How long did you look around before you decided?
   c. Was it a hard decision? What went into the final decision? Who helped? Do you need any further help?
   d. Did you consider another possible alternative?
   e. Are there some reasons behind your choice?
   f. What choices did you reject before you settled on your present idea or action?
   g. What's really good about this choice which makes it stand out from the other possibilities?

3. Choosing thoughtfully and reflectively

   a. What would be the consequences of each alternative available?
   b. Have you thought about this very much? How did your thinking go?
   c. Is this what I understand [illegible] to say. . .(interpret his statement)?
   d. Are you implying that. . .(distort his statement to see if he is clear enough to correct the distortion)?
   e. What assumptions are involved in your choice. Let's examine them.
   f. Define the terms you use. Give me an example of the kind of job you can get without a high-school diploma.
   g. Now if you do this, what will happen to that. . .?
   h. Is what you say consistent with what you said earlier?
   i. Just what is good about this choice?
   j. Where will it lead?
   k. For whom are you doing this?
   l. With these other choices, rank them in order of significance.
   m. What will you have to do? What are your first steps? Second steps?
   n. Whom else did you talk to?
   o. Have you really weighed it fully?

4. Prizing and cherishing

    a. Are you glad you feel that way?
    b. How long have you wanted it?
    c. What good is it? What purpose does it serve? Why is it important to you?
    d. Should everyone do it your way?
    e. Is it something you really prize?
    f. In what way would life be different without it?

5. Affirming

    a. Would you tell the class the way you feel sometime?
    b. Would you be willing to sign a petition supporting that idea?
    c. Are you saying that you believe. . .(repeat the idea)?
    d. You don't mean to say that you believe. . .(repeat the idea)?
    e. Should a person who believes the way you do speak out?
    f. Do people know that you believe that way or that you do that thing?
    g. Are you willing to stand up and be counted for that?

6. Acting upon choices

    a. I hear what you are for; now, is there anything you can do about it? Can I help?
    b. What are your first steps, second steps, etc.?
    c. Are you willing to put some of your money behind this idea?
    d. Have you examined the consequences of your act?
    e. Are there any organizations set up for the same purposes? Will you join?
    f. Have you done much reading on the topic? Who has influenced you?
    g. Have you made any plans to do more than you already have done?
    h. Would you want other people to know you feel this way? What if they disagree with you?
    i. Where will this lead you? How far are you willing to go?
    j. How has it already affected your life? How will it affect it in the future?

7. Repeating

    a. Have you felt this way for some time?
    b. Have you done anything already? Do you do this often?
    c. What are your plans for doing more of it?
    d. Should you get other people interested and involved?
    e. Has it been worth the time and money?
    f. Are there some other things you can do which are like it?
    g. How long do you think you will continue?
    h. What did you not do when you went to do that? Was that o.k.?
    i. How did you decide which had priority?
    j. Did you run into any difficulty?
    k. Will you do it again?

SEVEN VALUING PROCESSES

List a number of thoughts which you consider are values for you. Opposite each thought are seven characteristics which comprise valuing. If each of the characteristics is checked positively, you have a value--if not, you have an opinion.

		Chosen Freely	Alternatives	Thought & Reflection	Prize/Cherish	Publicly Affirm
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
12						
13						
14						
15						
16						

SEVEN VALUING PROCESSES

you
posite
istics
of the
ively,
ve an

	Chosen Freely	Alternatives	Thought & Reflection	Prize/Cherish	Publicly Affirm	Acting upon Choices	Repetition	

CHART 2

Value Indicators: Attitudes

Statements students have made:

1. "If you let in too many immigrants, I believe it just makes it tough for everyone else."

2. "When I sold him my bike, I didn't feel I had to tell him *everything* that was wrong with it."

3. "I think we just have to overcompensate Negroes at this time, because they're so far behind."

4. "You wouldn't catch me playing with dolls."

5. "I don't see why we have to wait until we're eighteen to drive."

Typical keywords that signal the statement of attitudes:

I'm for . . . .

I'm against . . . .

I feel that . . . .

I think if . . . .

The way I see it . . . .

If you ask me . . . .

In my opinion . . . .

My choice is . . . .

My way of doing it is . . . .

I'm convinced that . . . .

I believe . . . .

CHART 3

Value Indicator: Aspirations

Statements students have made:

1. "Someday I'd like to join the Peace Corps."

2. "If only I were better in math, I'd try for engineering."

3. "My hope is to someday buy a summer home on a lake and to have my own boat."

4. "My dream is to someday run a little nursery school of my own."

5. "We want to have six kids, three boys and three girls, eighteen months apart."

Typical keywords that signal the statement of aspirations:

In the future . . . .
When I grow up . . . .
Someday, I'm going to . . . .
My long-range plan is . . . .
In about ten years I'm . . . .
If all goes well . . . .
One of these days . . . .

CHART 4

Value Indicator: Purposes

Statements students have made:

1. "This weekend we're going to play."
2. "At the end of the month three of us fellows are going skiing."
3. "If I can find the right rear end from an old car, I'm going to make a trailer."
4. "I called my buddy and he's going to write for the appointment to see this man about the summer job."
5. "When I save up the twenty dollars, I'm going to buy that guitar."

Typical keywords that signal the statement of purposes:

We're thinking about doing . . . .

On the fifteenth, I'm going . . . .

On the way downtown we're . . . .

I wrote for the plans . . . .

When I get this . . . . I'm going to do that . . . .

We're waiting to hear from him . . . .

Boy! Will Saturday ever come?

I'd like to . . . .

CHART 5

Value Indicator: Interest

Statements students have made:

1. "I read everything I can lay my hands on about nursing."
2. "I'd rather listen to Bach than almost anyone else."
3. "I'm saving up to subscribe to this photography magazine."
4. "I'm going to enter this glider into the contest."
5. "No, I won't be home Saturday. I'm going to the town drag strip."

Typical keywords that signal a statement about activities:

I love making (or doing) . . . .

My hobby is . . . .

Yes, I subscribe to . . . .

I really enjoy reading about . . . .

If I had my choice, I'd take the ticket to . . . .

Most weekends I'm over at the . . . .

Every night after school I . . . .

Boy, nothing makes me feel better than . . . .

I got this catalogue on . . . .

CHART 6

Value Indicator: Activities

Statements students have made:

1. "I took my dog for a long walk."

2. "I worked five hours Saturday waxing the car."

3. "Friday night we watched the late show and then the late-late show."

4. "These two fellows and I made a hut."

5. "I lay down to take a nap, but just slept right through the night."

Typical keywords that signal a statement about activities:

After school, I usually . . . .
Last weekend, we . . . .
On my day off, I went . . . .
One of the best things we did Halloween . . . .
. . . . All yesterday afternoon
We just like to play . . . .

ALLIGATOR RIVER

Purpose:

To demonstrate the technique of value exposing. To give participants an opportunity to assess the process of their own value establishment. To give participants an opportunity to observe how other people support their own value judgments. To practice communications skills. To practice contrasting, comparing, classifying, analyzing, and imagining.

Group Size:

This exercise can be accomplished in any normal classroom size. Suggest three groups of 10 each.

Age of Group:

Can be adapted to use with any age group.

Time Required:

Variable, depending upon age of group, interest span, and perception skills. Limit exercise and ensuing discussion to one class period.

Instructions to Facilitator:

"Once upon a time, a boy named Gregory and a girl named Abigail were very good friends. One day Abigail was going to visit her grandmother on the other side of the river. On the way, she met Gregory, and they walked together across the only bridge in the village. They planned that they would have a picnic when Abigail returned from her grandmother's house. While she was there, however, a storm came up and washed away the bridge. Abigail had no way to get back to the village. She wouldn't be able to keep her promise to Gregory.

"As she walked along the bank of the river, she met Sinbad. She asked him to take her across the river. He said he would, but he had no gas for his motor and didn't have any oars. Besides the river current was too fast to be able to use them, even if he had them. Sinbad said that if Abigail would steal some gas for his motor, he would be happy to take her across. She said she couldn't bring herself to do that and continued her search along the river bank in hope of finding some way to get across.

"Finally she met Ivan and told him her story. Ivan flatly told her he didn't want to get involved in her problem. So she went back to Sinbad finally and told him she agreed to do as he suggested. She stole the gas and Sinbad kept his part of the bargain.

"When she got back, she told Gregory everything that had happened to her. He became very angry and told Abigail he never wanted to see her again.

"She began to cry and as she was going home met Slug and told him her sad tale of woe. Slug was infuriated and ran to catch Gregory and beat him to a bloody pulp. Abigail had trailed along behind Slug to see what was going to happen. When she saw Gregory lying on the ground all bloody, she looked at him scornfully and said, 'Well, I guess you got what was coming to you.'"

On a piece of paper, list these five people: Gregory, Abigail, Sinbad, Ivan, and Slug in the order you think they should be. Put the worst person as number five and the best person as number one.

Discuss the answers—how many number one's for each person involved in the story, how many two's, etc.

CLARIFYING RESPONSES

Clarifying responses are used by students to stimulate and clarify their thoughts about values they hold, their own behavior and the behavior and values of their peers and colleagues. This is a guide to a basic course in value education.

1. Is this something that you prize?
2. Are you glad about that?
3. How did you feel when that happened?
4. Did you consider any alternatives?
5. Have you felt this way for a long time?
6. Was that something that you yourself selected or chose?
7. Did you have to choose that; was it a free choice?
8. Do you do anything about that idea?
9. Can you give me some examples of that idea?
10. What do you mean by _____; can you define that word?
11. Where would that idea lead; what would be its consequences?
12. Would you really do that or are you just talking?
13. Are you saying that . . . (repeat)?
14. Did you say that . . . (repeat in some distorted way)?
15. Have you thought much about that idea (or behavior)?
16. What are some good things about that notion?
17. What do we have to assume for things to work out that way?
18. Is what you express consistent with . . . (note something else the person said or did that may point to an inconsistency)?
19. What other possibilities are there?

20. Is that a personal preference or do you think most people should believe that?

21. How can I help you do something about your idea? What seems to be the difficulty?

22. Is there a purpose back of this activity?

23. Is that very important to you?

24. Do you do this often?

25. Would you like to tell others about your idea?

26. Do you have any reasons for (saying or doing) that?

27. Would you do the same thing over again?

28. How do you know it's right?

29. Do you value that?

30. Do you think people will always believe that? Or, "Would Chinese peasants and African hunters also believe that?" Or, "Did people long ago believe that?"

CHART I

Clarifying Responses Suggested by the Seven Valuing Processes

1. Choosing freely

   a. Where do you suppose you first got that idea?
   b. How long have you felt that way?
   c. What would people say if you weren't to do what you say you must do?
   d. Are you getting help from anyone? Do you need more help? Can I help?
   e. Are you the only one in your crowd who feels this way?
   f. What do your parents want you to be?
   g. Is there any rebellion in your choice?
   h. How many years will you give to it? What will you do if you're not good enough?
   i. Do you think the idea of having thousands of people cheering when you come out on the field has anything to do with your choice?

2. Choosing from alternatives

   a. What else did you consider before you picked this?
   b. How long did you look around before you decided?
   c. Was it a hard decision? What went into the final decision? Who helped? Do you need any further help?
   d. Did you consider another possible alternative?
   e. Are there some reasons behind your choice?
   f. What choices did you reject before you settled on your present idea or action?
   g. What's really good about this choice which makes it stand out from the other possibilities?

3. Choosing thoughtfully and reflectively

   a. What would be the consequences of each alternative available?
   b. Have you thought about this very much? How did your thinking go?
   c. Is this what I understand you to say. . .(interpret his statement)?
   d. Are you implying that. . .(distort his statement to see if he is clear enough to correct the distortion)?
   e. What assumptions are involved in your choice. Let's examine them.
   f. Define the terms you use. Give me an example of the kind of job you can get without a high-school diploma.
   g. Now if you do this, what will happen to that. . .?
   h. Is what you say consistent with what you said earlier?
   i. Just what is good about this choice?
   j. Where will it lead?
   k. For whom are you doing this?
   l. With these other choices, rank them in order of significance.
   m. What will you have to do? What are your first steps? Second steps?
   n. Whom else did you talk to?
   o. Have you really weighed it fully?

4. Prizing and cherishing

   a. Are you glad you feel that way?
   b. How long have you wanted it?
   c. What good is it? What purpose does it serve? Why is it important to you?
   d. Should everyone do it your way?
   e. Is it something you really prize?
   f. In what way would life be different without it?

5. Affirming

   a. Would you tell the class the way you feel sometime?
   b. Would you be willing to sign a petition supporting that idea?
   c. Are you saying that you believe. . .(repeat the idea)?
   d. You don't mean to say that you believe. . .(repeat the idea)?
   e. Should a person who believes the way you do speak out?
   f. Do people know that you believe that way or that you do that thing?
   g. Are you willing to stand up and be counted for that?

6. Acting upon choices

   a. I hear what you are for; now, is there anything you can do about it? Can I help?
   b. What are your first steps, second steps, etc,?
   c. Are you willing to put some of your money behind this idea?
   d. Have you examined the consequences of your act?
   e. Are there any organizations set up for the same purposes? Will you join?
   f. Have you done much reading on the topic? Who has influenced you?
   g. Have you made any plans to do more than you already have done?
   h. Would you want other people to know you feel this way? What if they disagree with you?
   i. Where will this lead you? How far are you willing to go?
   j. How has it already affected your life? How will it affect it in the future?

7. Repeating

   a. Have you felt this way for some time?
   b. Have you done anything already? Do you do this often?
   c. What are your plans for doing more of it?
   d. Should you get other people interested and involved?
   e. Has it been worth the time and money?
   f. Are there some other things you can do which are like it?
   g. How long do you think you will continue?
   h. What did you not do when you went to do that? Was that o.k.?
   i. How did you decide which had priority?
   j. Did you run into any difficulty?
   k. Will you do it again?

SEVEN VALUING PROCESSES

List a number of thoughts which you consider are values for you. Opposite each thought are seven characteristics which comprise valuing. If each of the characteristics is checked positively, you have a value--if not, you have an opinion.

	Chosen Freely	Alternatives	Thought & Reflection	Prize/Cherish	Publicly Affirm	Acting upon Choices	Repetition	
1								
2								
3								
4								
5								
6								
7								
8								
9								
10								
11								
12								
13								
14								
15								
16								

CHART 2

Value Indicators: Attitudes

Statements students have made:

1. "If you let in too many immigrants, I believe it just makes it tough for everyone else."
2. "When I sold him my bike, I didn't feel I had to tell him everything that was wrong with it."
3. "I think we just have to overcompensate Negroes at this time, because they're so far behind."
4. "You wouldn't catch me playing with dolls."
5. "I don't see why we have to wait until we're eighteen to drive."

Typical keywords that signal the statement of attitudes:

I'm for . . . .

I'm against . . . .

I feel that . . . .

I think if . . . .

The way I see it . . . .

If you ask me . . . .

In my opinion . . . .

My choice is . . . .

My way of doing it is . . . .

I'm convinced that . . . .

I believe . . . .

CHART 3

Value Indicator: Aspirations

Statements students have made:

1. "Someday I'd like to join the Peace Corps."
2. "If only I were better in math, I'd try for engineering."
3. "My hope is to someday buy a summer home on a lake and to have my own boat."
4. "My dream is to someday run a little nursery school of my own."
5. "We want to have six kids, three boys and three girls, eighteen months apart."

Typical keywords that signal the statement of aspirations:

In the future . . . .

When I grow up . . . .

Someday, I'm going to . . . .

My long-range plan is . . . .

In about ten years I'm . . . .

If all goes well . . . .

One of these days . . . .

CHART 4

Value Indicator: Purposes

Statements students have made:

1. "This weekend we're going to play."

2. "At the end of the month three of us fellows are going skiing."

3. "If I can find the right rear end from an old car, I'm going to make a trailer."

4. "I called my buddy and he's going to write for the appointment to see this man about the summer job."

5. "When I save up the twenty dollars, I'm going to buy that guitar."

Typical keywords that signal the statement of purposes:

We're thinking about doing . . . .

On the fifteenth, I'm going . . . .

On the way downtown we're . . . .

I wrote for the plans . . . .

When I get this . . . . I'm going to do that . . . .

We're waiting to hear from him . . . .

Boy! Will Saturday ever come?

I'd like to . . . .

CHART 5

Value Indicator: Interest

Statements students have made:

1. "I read everything I can lay my hands on about nursing."
2. "I'd rather listen to Bach than almost anyone else."
3. "I'm saving up to subscribe to this photography magazine."
4. "I'm going to enter this glider into the contest."
5. "No, I won't be home Saturday. I'm going to the town drag strip."

Typical keywords that signal a statement about activities:

I love making (or doing) . . . .

My hobby is . . . .

Yes, I subscribe to . . . .

I really enjoy reading about . . . .

If I had my choice, I'd take the ticket to . . . .

Most weekends I'm over at the . . . .

Every night after school I . . . .

Boy, nothing makes me feel better than . . . .

I got this catalogue on . . . .

CHART 6

Value Indicator: Activities

Statements students have made:

1. "I took my dog for a long walk."
2. "I worked five hours Saturday waxing the car."
3. "Friday night we watched the late show and then the late-late show."
4. "These two fellows and I made a hut."
5. "I lay down to take a nap, but just slept right through the night."

Typical keywords that signal a statement about activities:

After school, I usually . . . .

Last weekend, we . . . .

On my day off, I went . . . .

One of the best things we did Halloween . . . .

. . . . All yesterday afternoon

We just like to play . . . .

VALUE STRATEGY

Six ideas to help oneself work toward the elimination of moralizing:

A. With value issues, avoid questions to which you already have an answer in mind, such as, "Would you like me to do that to you?", after Jim socks Phyllis. Use open-ended questions, such as, "What else might have been done?", and the list of thirty clarifying responses.

B. Avoid "why" questions, "yes-or-no" questions, "either-or" questions, or questions that tend to make a student defensive, ready to rationalize his position, or that limit his choices.

C. Begin with written value lessons, such as value sheets and thought sheets, so that you can reread your responses before the student sees them and so that you can have time to think carefully before you respond.

D. Ask a friend to listen to your classroom responses or to read your written comments in value issues and to note moralizing tendencies.

E. Ask students if they feel as if you are loading the dice about issues that you believe are not being loaded and if you are accepting alternative values in cases in which you make your position clear.

F. Most importantly, begin the use of value strategies with topics in which you have no strong feelings one way or the other, such as how children should spend leisure time or what occupation they should choose. When the teacher has no position, he is less likely to unconsciously try to sway the beliefs of the students.

"VALUE CLARIFICATION EXERCISE"

(FORCED CHOICE GRID)

+ +	+	–	– –
1	3	5	7
2	4	6	8

Purpose:

To allow participants to examine their values in reference to the examples used, and, if followed by effective questioning, to facilitate a better perspective of valuing.

Group Size:

Virtually unlimited.

Age of Group:

Varies, depending upon examples used. (Note: the examples given here were used with a group with ages ranging from 20-55.)

Time Required:

Minimum of 20 minutes.

Instructions to Facilitator:

You are to slowly read the descriptions of 8 characters. Participants are to place the name of one character in each square. Participants may change their minds by crossing out a character and moving that name to another square. When finished, each square should have one name in it, with number one being the best and number 8 the worst according to the values of each participant.

Examples:

1) Hippie: 17 year old boy, a little dirty, doesn't work, critical of the establishment.

2) Drug Abuser: Girl, sophomore in college, respected family, B+ student in high school, family pressure to succeed.

3) Bar Fly: Man, aged 35, could be an alcoholic, cashes weekly paycheck at corner bar, passive when drinking, good family man when sober.

4) Abortion Girl: Junior in college, dropped out of college to use tuition money to have an abortion, did not tell parents.

5) Shoplifter: Sweet-appearing grandmother, aged 55.

6) Welfare Case: Man, age 47, has opportunity to work and get off welfare but does not.

7) Draft-card Burner: Boy, just out of high school, average student, facing draft, not eligible for O.C.S., burns draft-card.

8) Nurse: Woman, age 32, personal problems, impatient on the job, snaps at patients, at times imcompetent.

Questions:

1) Ask participants how many had each character in first position, last position.
2) What are you protecting?
3) "I learned that..."
4) Good Rule: "You are responsible for the position you are in."
5) What are you trying to protect when you are tolerant of one person, but not tolerant of another?
6) There are basically 3 ways of handling values:
    a) Depose--to destroy someone's values.
    b) Impose--tell others what their values should be.
    c) Expose--tell others where you stand, but not demand that they stand there also.

TWENTY THINGS THAT I LIKE TO DO

(Value Clarification)

Purpose:

To allow participants to examine their likes in a value clarification setting.

Group Size:

Virtually unlimited.

Age of Group:

Can be used with almost any age group.

Time Required:

Minimum of 25-30 minutes.

Instructions to Facilitator:

1) Ask group to list 20 things they like to do--leave space on left-hand side.

2) Ask participants to place following symbols in front of likes:

F = Father likes to do;
M = Mother likes to do;
A = Likes to do alone;
$ = If costs more than $3;
5 = Things you liked to do 5 years ago;
PL = Those things that require planning;
* = 5 things you like most.

3) Ask question: "I learned that I... "

4) Take first 5 likes--ask:

   a) Do these things cost money?
   b) Do they require planning?
   c) How much like my parents am I?
   d) Etc.

5) What do you receive from one of your 5 first likes? (Make a list.)

6) What are some things you could get more of from one of your first 5 likes?

7) Make a contract with yourself to get more of that out of life. (Only that which you'll really do!)

8) Why are our lives filled with so much other stuff?

9) What will you do to get more of what you really like into your life?

10) "I learned that I...'

REACTION SHEET

1. Did you act on any of your values this week? What did you do?

2. Did you do anything this week which required more than three solid hours?

3. What, if anything, did you do this week of which you are proud?

4. Did you work on any plans this week for some future experience you hope to have?

5. List one or two ways in which the week could have been better.

6. Were you in emphatic agreement or disagreement with anyone this week?

7. What did you learn this week, in or out of school, that you are likely to use in your later life?

8. What did you do this week that made you very happy?

9. What was the best day of the past week? What made it the best?

10. Are you happy with the way you spend your weekends? How could you improve them?

11. Identify three choices you made during the week.

12. Were there important contradictions or inconsistencies in your week?

13. How was this week different from the previous week?

TEACHING HISTORY WITH A FOCUS ON VALUES

What can be done to stimulate students to feel a sense of personal involvement in the study of history? "Focus on values," suggests one team of scholars.

Watching the debacle of the political conventions this past summer somehow made the history teaching we do seem even more irrelevant. With society moving rapidly toward several suspicious and angry camps, with the Vietnam war draining away so many lives and so many dollars, with our cities on the verge of explosion and no one apparently able to prevent it, the conventions went on with their adolescent hoopla, nineteenth century pageantry, and politics as usual. It was historically familiar, only this was 1968 and the conventions seemed out-of-date against the backdrop of our seething problems--just as so much of typical history teaching is out-of-date, and for the same reasons.

Students today, with ever-increasing frequency and volume, are demanding a curriculum pertinent to their own needs and concerns. They want to understand what's going on and what to do about it. How can the history teacher answer these demands?

"We study history to better appreciate our cultural heritage."
"We study history to better understand the present."
"We study history to avoid the mistakes of the past."

As important as these motivations may be, and as sincerely as we may posit them, students are no longer getting the message. With rare exceptions these noble goals offered in September are forgotten by the first of October and, by Columbus Day, the students once again are convinced that history is, at worst, a series of meaningless facts and, at best, a series of probably important but definitely dull ideas. This pattern is too true, too often.

Focus on Values

We believe that the students' need for relevance plus all the traditional goals of the study of history can be met by teaching history with a focus on values.

What do we mean by a focus on values?

First, we believe that every subject in the curriculum can be dealt with on three levels: the facts level, the concepts level, and the values level. To illustrate how these three levels differ, let us consider a typical subject-matter area in American history--the formation of the Constitutional system and how it contributed to the workings of our American government.

On the facts level, we might find questions like these:

1. In what order did the states ratify the Constitution?
2. What were the major differences between the Constitution and the Articles of Confederation?
3. Name the founding fathers who were most instrumental in the formation of the Constitution, and tell the part that each played.
4. What resolutions did the Constitutional Convention pass on the issue of slavery?
5. Describe the ten amendments which make up the Bill of Rights.

Obviously, the factual level has its importance; but few would dispute the point that teachers must go beyond this level. It is widely recognized today that teachers must help students to understand concepts and to see how separate facts can be related through the process of generalization. Jerome Bruner's work has helped give this notion widespread attention.

On the concepts level, then, we might entertain questions such as these:

1. Why did the founding fathers believe it necessary to have a Bill of Rights? Relate their thinking to Washington's Farewell Address.
2. What were the causes of the American Revolution and how typical were they of revolutions in general?
3. How did the Constitution prevent "taxation without representation"?
4. If the Constitutional Convention had declared slavery illegal, how might the course of American history have been different?
5. What was the reasoning behind separating the powers into three branches of government?

Students do not really understand a subject until they can deal skillfully with it at the conceptual level--until they can see interrelationships, support generalizations, and understand causes and effects. It is skillful teaching at this level which makes us feel proud and excited to be history teachers. However, a student may be able to think and learn at the concept level and still find history irrelevant and boring.

This is where the values level comes in. On the values level, the student is asked not only to understand history, but to become personally involved in it, perhaps to take a stand, to relate the concepts to his own times, and to consider alternatives of action or his own life.

Here are some questions that raise issues to the values level:

1. If you were at the Constitutional Convention, how would you have voted on the question of slavery? What are some things students your age have done about the race problem in America today? Have you done anything?
2. Compare the ways in which decisions are made in the United States government with the ways decisions are made in your family. Are there checks and balances? What part do you play in family decisions?
3. If you wanted to change something in our society or in this school, what are some ways you would go about it? Have you ever tried any of them?

4. The First Amendment affirms the right of freedom of speech. Have you made use of that freedom recently in a way of which you are proud? Name five things more important to you than freedom of speech.
5. Here are five civil liberties issues which have recently come up before the Supreme Court. Before I tell you the Court's decisions, I would like you to divide into committees and pretend that you are the Supreme Court. How would you decide on each? Give your reasons.

Notice how often the word "You" appears on the values level. The emphasis is on the student's values, beliefs, and behavior. By beginning with these questions of values, he can be led to see the relevance of history to the present and to his own life. By ending with these value questions, prior studied facts and concepts come alive in a context of reality.

Unit in History

Any unit in history can be seen on these three levels. Consider the topic of "war," for example.

Facts Level

1. Name the wars in which the United States has been directly involved since 1776.
2. Which wars took place at home and which on foreign soil?
3. Which wars contributed to the territorial expansion of the United States?
4. What were the major provisions of the 1954 Geneva Agreements on Vietnam?

Concepts Level

1. What are the major causes of war?
2. What factors have contributed to the United States generally being on the winning side of wars she has fought?
3. What are the main positive and negative results of war?
4. What are the likely outcomes of an American withdrawal from Vietnam?

Values Level

1. In your opinion, to what extent has the United States been justified in each of the wars she has fought? Which wars would you have considered "just"?
2. Should an individual be allowed to refuse to serve in the armed forces? For what reason(s)? Under what circumstances would you kill? What are some living things you have killed?
3. Have you ever done anything to promote world peace? What things might you do? Do you know some people already doing some of these things?

4. Have you ever been in a physical fight? What caused it? What were the results? Would you respond in the same way again?
5. How are disputes settled in your family? By force? By reason?
6. Where do you stand on the Vietnam War? Have you done anything to convince others of your point of view? Should you?

We cannot emphasize enough that the purpose of these questions is not to transmit the teacher's values to the students, but to stimulate the students to formulate their own values, as a vital part of the process of learning a body of knowledge.

History is filled with values issues to stimulate the students' thinking and to bring the subject close home, thus making it much more relevant and interesting. As examples, here are other topics lifted to the values level.

The increase of prosperity and the rise of the middle class raise values issues about money and material possessions in our own lives today.
The shortening of the work week raises values issues about the purposes of work and leisure time.
Advances in world communication (television, electronic media, et cetera) raise values issues about the responsibility for truth.
Scientific advances (space travel, contraception, atomic energy, safe abortions, et cetera) raise values issues about morality and religion.
An examination of family structure in pioneer times raises values issues about family and home life in suburbia today.
The ebb and flow of Negro history raises values issues about race relations today.

These examples may well make the conscientious teacher weary, since there is so much information to transmit on the factual and conceptual levels of history without getting to values. But as Louis Raths used to ask rhetorically of his students: "What is the purpose of information?"

"To inform," he would answer. "To inform our values."

It is an important point. Information for its own sake becomes mere decoration, not wisdom. The facts and concepts of history can add to the substance of our students' values--values which will help them guide their lives wisely through a confusing and complex world. But this goal of the study of history will not be gained by paying lip service to it in September. It can be done only by consistently elevating the subject matter we teach to the third level--the level of values.[1]

Teaching is not easy. The profession does not need dry, drab assignments, recitations, and tests. Instead, we need teachers who will sensitize themselves to the values issues present in their subject matter. Such teachers must be willing to risk some lively discussions and controversy. They must continually remind themselves not to moralize and not to foist values on the students. And, of course, we need teachers who know their subject well enough to be able to recommend readings and areas to explore, to help students further their thinking and knowledge as they search for value clarity.

Teaching history with a focus on values is indeed a challenge. But once students have faced it, facts and concepts alone seem much too tame. Nothing is quite as gratifying for teachers and students as dealing with real and relevant questions and being deeply involved in the values quest.

---

[1] For additional background, theory, and methods in the area of values in the classroom, see Louis E. Raths, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney B. Simon, Values and Teaching, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1966.

"UP AGAINST THE WALL" EXERCISE

The "Up Against the Wall" exercise (otherwise known as "Value Visualization"). The purpose of this exercise is to provide an experience of the diverse attitudes towards violence present within a group or class.

The exercise starts with all participants lining up against a wall. Each group should have room to move forward all the way to the opposite wall. The wall against which the participants are standing represents the position "I strongly disapprove." The opposite wall represents the view "I strongly approve." Positions between the two walls should be marked indicating such stands as "undecided" (the center), approve somewhat, disapprove somewhat, approve and disapprove.

The group leader then reads to the group stories (newspaper or fictional) of violence and asks each person to express his feelings about the violence by moving to the appropriate location in the room. Time should be provided between stories for the group to look around and see the pattern of feelings.

The same story can be used two or more times by merely changing the victim. Once a victim is a defenseless child, the next time change the victim to a dishonest politician, a Vietcong guerilla, a misbehaving adolescent, etc.

After the exercise feelings, observations, and patterns noticed should be discussed. Essential to the exercise is that the players actually move their bodies and not merely make a mark or raise a hand.

THE "ALL OR NOTHING" EXERCISE

The "All or Nothing" exercise. The purpose of this exercise is to confront a small group with a decision to be made. After the group makes the decision all take part in judging the amount of subtle violence (violation) which took place during the process. Also judged is the decision to determine whether justice or violation occurred.

Select from the class a group of from four to eight. These form a circle while the others in the class watch (or there could be more than one group operating simultaneously). Each group member should volunteer his services for this experiment. Before volunteering, the class is told that there will be a dime or a quarter fee (or more depending on circumstances) to participate in this experiment. Only those in the small group pay.

Have each member of the small group(s) contribute their money to the "kitty." As yet no one knows what the "kitty" will be used for. Place the money gathered in the center of the circle and explain what is to happen.

The rules are simple. In a given time limit, say 10 or 15 minutes, the group is to decide who gets all the money in the center. The money must all go to one person, no deals to split the money after the exercise are permitted. There is no group leader appointed and no restrictions placed on technique.

The group is faced with a microcosm problem of creating justice at either expense or profit to themselves.

In the discussion following the decision, concentrate on the concept of justice vs. violation. The two most often used approaches, the democratic and the pure chance, hardly guarantee justice. A variation is to forbid the use of either vote or chance in making the final decision.

HUCKLEBERRY FINN: A VALUES EXPLORATION

The novel HUCKLEBERRY FINN, very simply, is a story about a young boy who has difficulty relating and adapting to the society in which he lives. Huck Finn, the young boy, is faced with many ethical and moral problems. These values problems hamper Huck's ability to make many of his real-life decisions.

Since modern youngsters, like Huck, are concerned with value choices and decision making, we suggest an exploration of Huck Finn's values and how his values relate to present adolescents. The value approach we advocate, for exploration, lets students choose freely from alternatives after careful consideration of the consequences. Also, students should feel good about choices and be willing to affirm their choices publicly. Finally, they act out their choices and act repeatedly so that it becomes a pattern in their lives. Then, if all of the above criteria are present, the value awareness process is complete.

The specific technique we suggest is called the value continuum. This technique works like this: the class or the teacher identifies an issue to be discussed in class. Then two polar positions are identified and the task of the class is to identify other positions in the issue and try to place them on the continuum, both in relationship to the poles and to positions already placed. Also, students are asked to place themselves on the continuum, to express how they feel or think about a particular issue. Or, if they are hesitant to reveal themselves, a hypothetical person may be substituted.

Examples:

Ask students to place Huck, as they see him, on the following continuums.

Honest — Dishonest
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Brave — Cowardly
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Involved — Apathetic
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Religious — Secular
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Abolitionist — Slavery
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

It may be profitable to pursue a discussion which could easily follow. A discussion of how students see Huck's values may make the novel a much more meaningful experience for students. After a discussion has progressed, it might be a good idea to ask if anyone would like to change any of their placements on the continuums.

The next step, if you choose, could be to have students place themselves on the continuum. This should be done on a voluntary basis; students should be given the option to pass. Students that choose to place themselves on the continuums would not only have an opportunity to affirm their own values, but to compare themselves with how they and others saw Huck Finn.

We feel this is one interesting and refreshing alternative method for discovering HUCKLEBERRY FINN, a method which allows students to explore the values of Huckleberry Finn and to explore their own values. Also, as students compare their values with Huck's values, the gap between school and life tends to narrow.

USING THE HUMANITIES FOR VALUE CLARIFICATION

When we are feeling particularly harsh, we see the humanities as having done little more than supplying countless numbers of college graduates with enough names to drop at suburban cocktail parties. "Ah, yes, it is the existential crisis for all of us." or "Since her divorce, she looks more and more like Grendel's mother." or "But if she doesn't have that e'lan vital: what is there?"

Even when we are more sanguine, we are forced to acknowledge that the humanities have not served contemporary man very well in the near past, and in the future. We do not seem to be getting a consistent or prevailing awareness from those thousands of college graduates who are witnessing the mounting problems confronting our world. Actually, the majority of our exhumanities students simply do not care to become involved. The humanities in the college experience seem not to have much influenced their lives.

This is especially frustrating to us because the humanities seem particularly suited to enlighten, refine, and extend human living. Why have they missed the boat? What can be done?

Briefly, it seems to us that teaching of the humanities has been too concerned with the fact level of the disciplines and even too concerned with the concept level. A third level, what we call the "value level" is the point of emphasis that we see as having been neglected.

Let us use a rather prosaic example to make this point. Take the story of the Pilgrims and their place in the history of America. We can look at the "Mayflower and all that saga" at the fact level.

I. Fact Level (Pilgrims)

1. Why the Pilgrims left England. Religious intolerance in England prior to 1620.
2. The Pilgrims go to the Netherlands. What they find there and why they left.
3. The Mayflower journey. Trials and hardships.
4. Arriving at the "Plymouth Plantation."
5. Relations with the Indians.
6. The first Thanksgiving.
7. Their own practice of religious intolerance, etc.

The above items from the fact level should be fairly familiar to all of us. It is subject matter composed of details, specifics, and it is organized chronologically. It builds fact upon fact. Unfortunately, such subject matter is difficult to remember, of little interest to most students, and of even less use in the search for values that enlightens living in today's world. It is, however, still better than a lower level, a level we might refer to as the "myth level." Pilgrims on that level of untruths are seen complete with silver buckles and starched white collars treating the Indians kindly with their blunder-busses.

There is a level higher than the fact and myth levels. It is the generalization, concept-oriented level encouraged by Bruner and his followers.

II. Concept Level (Pilgrims)

1. Generalizations on causes and effects of prejudice and intolerance.
2. Migration concept. Why do people leave their home countries? Economic, political, social reasons, etc.
3. The "Mayflower Compact": viewed as part of the concept of self-government and the plantation covenant and these seen as relating to the later Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution.
4. Survival in the wilderness. Establishing a community in a hostile world.
5. A universalized concept of being thankful, of sharing, of competing, etc.

Now, the above subject matter will be recognized as the basis for good teaching. It is focused on building relationships between ideas and pulling together generalized attributes of things. Many are proud to be able to do this kind of teaching, but we submit that it is not enough. Let us look at the value-clarification level of this commonly taught Pilgrim saga.

III. Values Level (Pilgrims)

1. Have intolerance or prejudice ever touched your life?
2. Are there freedoms you consider so precious that you would probably leave any place in which they were denied?
3. Historians say that the Pilgrims took advantage of the Indians. Some people say that Negroes and Puerto Ricans, to name two groups, are being unfairly treated today. Do you or members of your family contribute to the problem in any way? Do you think you should alleviate it any? Have you done anything?

4. Just what are some things for which you, personally, give thanks? Would they be good for everyone?

5. Are there any freedoms which you see threatened right now in America? Would you work to preserve them? How? If not you, who? Etc.

Let us be clear that teachers are not to do away with facts and concepts altogether. It should be apparent that facts and concepts are essential if we are to have anything significant enough to think about. On the other hand, let us say strongly that merely teaching Level 1 facts and Level 2 concepts is not sufficient, no matter how brilliantly conveyed, if values of students are ever to be clarified. The teacher must move his teaching up and into that third level.

Look again at the kinds of questions we have suggested for Level 3, value-clarification teaching. For one thing, the questions have a heavy component of "you" in them. Those questions attempt to get the student to lean in and look at his present life, to see it as related to the subject matter and the subject matter as pertinent to it. This is essential, this linking of the facts and concepts to the choices and decisions in the student's real life, at least if we are serious about teaching for the enlightment of the students' lives.

Among those "you questions" there are some which get the student to look at what he is actually _doing_ in his life. This action emphasis is extremely important. (For a full treatment of the value theory which underpins this article, see _Values and Teaching_, Louis E. Raths, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney B. Simon, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1966.) Many of mankind's problems with values stem from the giant gap between what we _say_ and what we actually _do_ about what we say. For many of us this gap is a chasm.

One sign of adulthood would be a consistency between what we preach and what we do. For example, if we say we are for the equality of the races, then perhaps we don't live in a segregated neighborhood; or at least we are seen working to change it. Perhaps because few persons helped those old pilgrims consider the values they were living, they grew to be as harsh and as intolerant with their own non-believers as their oppressors had been to them.

This can be made even clearer by turning to an example dear to the heart of the humanities teacher, Shakespeare's _Macbeth_. _Macbeth_ is a good example for three reasons. It is taught so universally, it is universally taught badly, and it is a play particularly ripe with values teaching possibilities.

I. _Fact Level_ _(Macbeth_

1. The identity of the characters. Distinguish Banquo from Duncan, etc.

2. The outline of the plot. To know the sequence of Macbeth's rise and fall.

3. To be able to recall and understand the meaning behind some of the important quotations, "Out damned spot." etc.

4. To know the Elizabethan meanings of certain words in the play.

5. To understand the dramaturgy used by Shakespeare (witches, etc).

6. To know some of the critic's appraisals of the play.

The above list is not meant to be all inclusive by any means. There are many other facts and details which might be considered more important than the ones listed, but we hope the point is made. Most teachers feel comfortable with data. Students do, too. They know how to respond to the kinds of questions which will be asked on tests. ("How did the Birnam Wood to high Dunsinane Hill actually come about?")

As we move on to the second level, the concept level, we see teaching that is more exciting and alive.

II. Concept Level (Macbeth)

1. The concept of tragedy.

2. Concept of "ghost" in Elizabethans times as compared to today.

3. Key concepts in the play such as: ambition, guilt, revenge, courage, etc.

4. The aristotelian concept of the writing of plays.

5. Psychological concepts behind Lady Macbeth's breakdown.

6. Elements in Shakespeare's plays which make them live through the centuries.

7. Macbeth as a movie or as a play in modern dress, etc.

Again, certain teachers would focus upon other concepts. Our lists are merely suggestive, but one should quickly be able to sense how much more lively would be the class time spent dealing with concepts rather than routine facts or, for that matter, even unroutine facts, such as the one which says that Macbeth was written to curry favor with James I, or that Duncan would have lived had he had a tetanus shot.

It is, however, a serious error to stop at the second level. Macbeth is well-suited to help students develop skills of evaluating their lives. Questions, like the ones below encourage students to do this.

III. Values Level (Macbeth)

1. Do you know any marriages which have similarities to that of the Macbeth's? Are you clear about what marriage means? Will you marry a Lady Macbeth? How will you know?
2. What is your own ambition? How did you come to it? Who, if anyone, has a high stake in your goal?
3. Some people say that corruption sets in when people use unjust means to obtain even the most just of ends. Have you seen any of this in our society today? In your own life?
4. What are some things which make people in our society feel guilty? Does this have any meaning for your own life?
5. Is killing ever justifiable? Could you kill? Is capital punishment something you can support? Or change? Have you done anything about it?
6. Have you ever sought revenge? How much should one take lying down? What have you done when you have been wronged?
7. Are there any changes you will make in your life because we have studied Macbeth?

Once more we see that the focus of the questions on the third level is upon that pronoun YOU. The action component, "Are you doing anything about it?" is in there, too. Throughout the values level kind of teaching an effort is made to use the subject matter to get students to think about their lives. In the inevitable discussions which grow out of these questions, there emerges a wide range of alternatives. Students may find in those alternatives options to consider for their own lives.

Our point is simply stated. The subject matter of the humanities must strive to move up to that third level, a level which has the clarification of values as its prime objective. Facts, which are not unimportant unless they are taught in a vacuum, often emerges in a more logical, more useful, and more significant form from such teaching. Concepts and generalizations hang together better because they are sewed up with the value thinking of the lecture.

For many, value, clarification teaching is exciting teaching. On the other hand, some teachers will find it quite uncomfortable, partly because it insists that teachers depart from pre-planned questions aimed at pat "right" answers. On the other hand, many who have worked at tying subject matter to students' value growth wouldn't trade any amount of comfort for the sheer rest that comes from this sort of teaching.

These are troubled and confused times in which to grow up. To live life with integrity becomes more and more difficult for young people. For us adults, to make sense out of the daily headlines, to find ways to feel less automated and alienated can often overwhelm us and drive us to withdrawal. We think of that most poignant of buttons our students wear: "God isn't dead. He just doesn't want to get involved."

We must demand of the humanities that they be more than polite decorations of the erudite. We insist that they have to relate to students' lives, they must pertain to reality today, that they need to do what they are so suited to do: help students clarify their values.

THE ART OF LISTENING

Recently I ran across a story about a family which was eating dinner when the youngest member, a four-year-old, stood up in his chair and blurted out: "Pass the butter!" Well, that mother decided that she would have none of that. She turned to the child and spoke sharply. "You cannot have any dinner. We don't act like that around this house. You will ask for the butter politely or you will not have any butter at all. Anyone who acts like that doesn't deserve any dinner. Go to your room, immediately!" The little boy started to say something. "But..." The mother broke in. "No 'buts' about it. Go to your room at once!"

Well, most of us would agree that the child needed some discipline. No child should be allowed to stand up at the dinner table and shout like that. Children must learn to be like their parents--ask politely and take their turns.

Tape Recording

After supper, the father gathered the family together and told them he had a surprise for them. "I had the tape recorder on during the meal and I want to play it back and let us hear what we sound like while we are eating." The family all gathered round and listened to the recording. Supper began on a quiet note, but before long the group had gotten rather noisy. There was a lot of loud talking and laughing.

Then, as the mother listened rather closely, she thought she heard something. "Go back and play that part again," she told her husband. He rewound the tape and played the part she wanted to hear again. Sure enough, it was here. A very soft little voice could barely be heard beneath the noise and laughter. It spoke: "Would someone please pass the butter?" The recorder continued on and for awhile all anyone could hear was the noise and laughter. Then, just a little louder than before, the voice came again. "Would someone please pass the butter?" But the noise and laughter continued. The little voice got no reply.

Then It Happened

Then it happened! The voice boomed out, "Pass the butter!" And then the voice telling him to go to his room without any supper. The mother sent for the little boy, apologized to him and gave him his supper.

I'm afraid there are several people like that today. People who have tried to be heard in a nice way, only to have doors closed in their faces and ears that would not hear. If we would have listened to the pleading of the colored man years ago, perhaps our problems in race relations wouldn't be as great today. And if we had listened to the common man, perhaps the unions would be controlled by a different breed of men today. But we were too busy with our own chatter.

One of the greatest traits one can learn is to listen. You see, when we listen it shows we care and are concerned. And, after all, that's what most people want. Someone to care.

ACCENT ON LISTENING:

THE ECHO GAME

Purpose:

To learn that listening is an active task, not a passive one.

Setting:

This exercise can be carried out by a class in any seating arrangement, though it will provide a more valuable experience if the groups sit in inner and outer circles with half acting as participants, half as observers. It can be done with any age group and requires 15 to 20 minutes. (See Fishbowl Exercise.)

Procedure:

1. Start a discussion on a subject of special interest to the class. (Older children might enjoy discussing current events, spectator sports, dating, a new craze; while younger children might prefer a discussion on pets, hobbies, or outings.)

2. After the discussion is underway, interrupt the class and tell them that before anyone speaks, he must first repeat what the previous speaker has said, to that person's satisfaction. Tell the observers to count the number of participants who give accurate accounts of what the previous speakers have said and to notice if the participants are actually listening to each other.

3. When the discussion is over, participants and observers should exchange places and repeat the process.

Analysis:

After the exercise, hold a brief discussion on how the echoing rule affected individuals. Many students will be amazed to discover what poor listeners they are--often because they are so absorbed in what they are going to say when the other person stops talking.

Materials:

None

LISTENING TRIADS

Goal:

To understand the necessity of listening to each other with comprehension as opposed to merely hearing words.

Group Size:

Unlimited number of triads.

Time Required:

Approximately forty-five minutes.

Materials Utilized:

I. Topics for Discussion sheets for each triad.

II. Questions for Discussion sheets for each triad.

Physical Setting:

Triads will separate from one another to avoid outside noise interference.

Process:

I. Triads are formed.

II. Participants in each triad number themselves A, B, or C.

III. The facilitator distributes Topics for Discussion sheets.

IV. In each group, one person will act as referee and the other two as participants in a discussion of one of the topics found on the sheet. One will be the speaker and the other the listener.

V. The following instructions are given by the facilitator:

  A. The discussion is to be unstructured except that before each participant speaks, he must first summarize, in his own words and without notes, what has been said previously.

  B. If his summary is thought to be incorrect, the speaker or the referee are free to interrupt and clear up any misunderstanding.

C. Participant A begins as speaker. He is allowed to choose his own topic from those listed.

D. Participant B will begin as listener and participant C as referee.

E. The discussion progresses as follows:

   1. After about seven minutes of discussion by the speaker and the listener, participant B becomes the speaker, participant C the listener, and participant A the referee. The new speaker chooses his topic.

   2. After another seven minutes C becomes the speaker.

VI. After another seven minutes the discussions are halted.

VII. The facilitator distributes Questions for Discussions sheets and conducts a discussion based upon the questions.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

Choose one topic:

1. Interracial and interfaith marriages--good or bad? Why?
2. Should college students be eligible for the draft?
3. Is the U.S. right in its Vietnam policies?
4. Should the number of required credits be reduced?
5. Black Power--good or bad for Blacks?
6. Are student activists justified in taking over college buildings?
7. (Any other contemporary issue may be substituted.)

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

(Listening Triads)

1. Did you find that you had difficulty in listening to others during the exercise? Why?

2. Did you find that you had difficulty in formulating your thoughts and listening at the same time?

   a. Forgetting what you were going to say.

   b. Not listening to others.

   c. Rehearsing your response.

3. When others paraphrased your remarks, did they do it in a shorter, more concise way?

4. Did you find that you were not getting across what you wanted to say?

5. Was the manner of presentation by others affecting your listening ability?

6. How do you feel others in your triad communicated verbally? Nonverbally?

7. How do you feel you communicated verbally? Nonverbally?

ONE-WAY AND TWO-WAY COMMUNICATION

Goals:

I. To conceptualize the superior functioning of two-way communication through participatory demonstration.

II. To examine the application of communication in family, social, and occupational settings.

Group Size:

Minimum of ten.

Time Required:

Unlimited.

Materials Utilized:

I. Chalkboard, chalk, and eraser.

II. Two sheets of paper and a pencil for each participant.

III. Reproductions of Chart I and Chart II.

Physical Setting:

Participants should be facing the demonstrator and sitting in such a way that it will be difficult, if not impossible, to see each other's drawings. In the first phase of the exercise the demonstrator turns his back to the group or stands behind a screen.

Process:

I. The facilitator may wish to begin with a discussion of ways of looking at communication in terms of content, direction, networks, or interference.

II. The facilitator indicates that the group will experiment with the directions aspects of communication by participating in the following exercise:

A. Preliminaries: The facilitator selects a demonstrator and one or two observers. Participants are supplied with a pencil and two sheets of paper, one labeled Chart I and the other labeled Chart II.

B. Directions: The group is told that the demonstrator will give directions to draw a series of squares. The participants are instructed to draw the squares exactly as they are told by the demonstrator. These drawings will be made on the paper labeled Chart I. Participants may neither ask questions nor give audible responses.

1. Demonstrator is asked to study the diagram of squares for a period of two minutes.
2. The facilitator instructs the observers to take notes on the behavior and reactions of the demonstrator and/or the participants.
3. The facilitator places three small tables, as follows, on the chalkboard.

TABLE I

MEDIANS	I	II
Time Elapsed		
Guess Accuracy		
Actual Accuracy		

TABLE 2

Number Correct	Guess	Actual
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		
0		

TABLE 3

Number Correct	Guess	Actual
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		
0		

4. The facilitator asks the demonstrator to proceed, reminding him to tell the group what to draw as quickly and accurately as he can. The facilitator will also caution the group not to ask questions and not to give audible reactions.

5. The time it takes the demonstrator to complete his instructions is recorded in Table 1.

6. Each participant is asked to estimate the number of squares he has drawn correctly in relation to the other squares.

7. Repeat the experience with the following modifications: the demonstrator uses Chart II, facing the group, and is allowed to reply to questions from the group.

8. The facilitator determines the median for guessed accuracy for trials one and two based upon the individual estimations of accuracy and indicates these on Table 2 and Table 3.

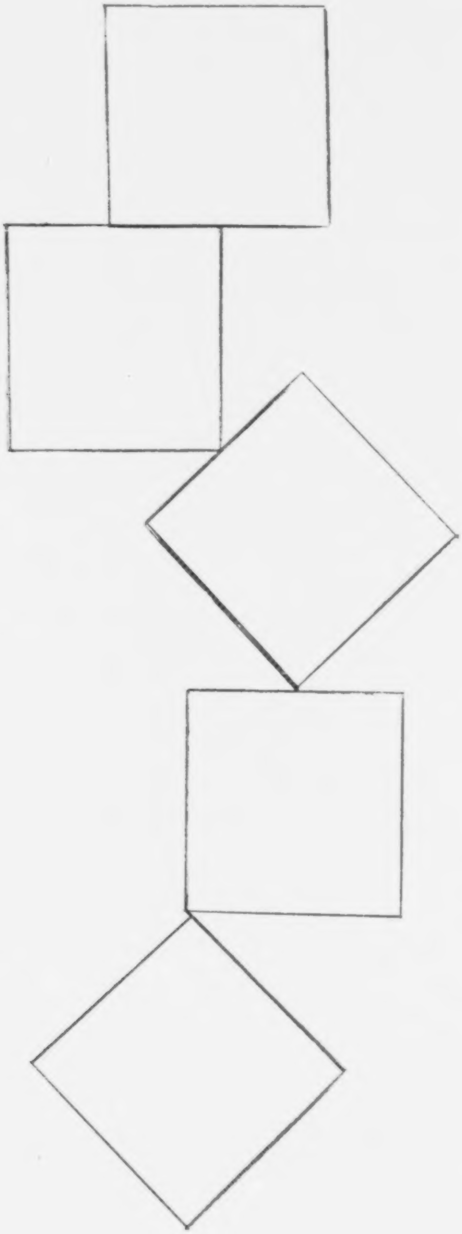
9. The group is then shown the master charts for the two sets of squares and asked to determine actual accuracy.

10. The facilitator determines the median for actual accuracy for trials one and two based upon the individual scores.

III. A discussion of the results in terms of time, accuracy, and level of confidence should follow, calling upon "back-home" experience and application.

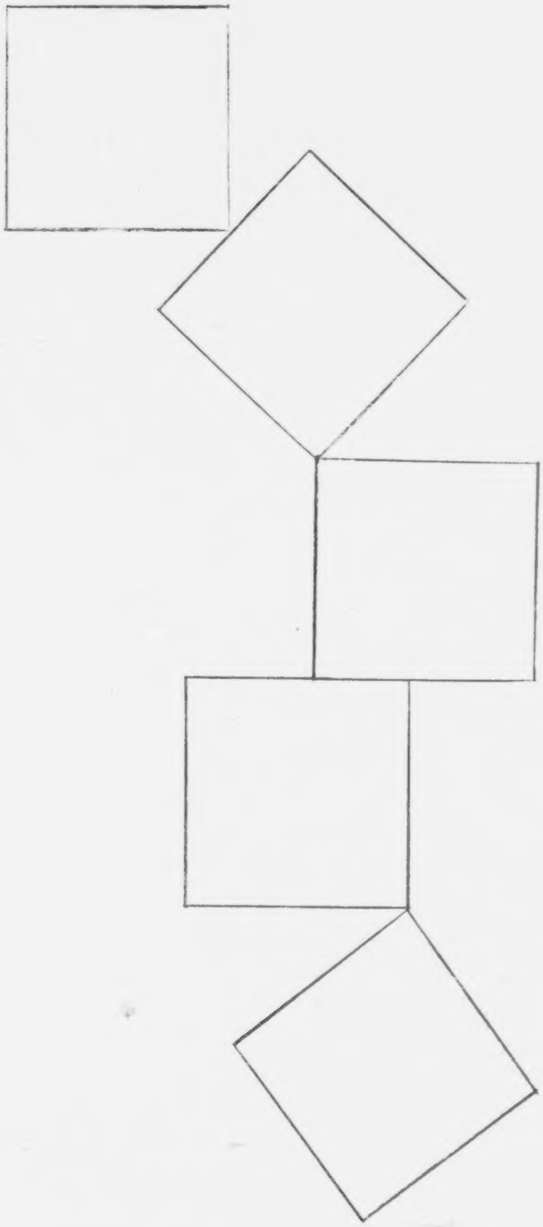
IV. The observers offer their data, and the group discusses it in relation to the data generated during the first phase of the discussion.

CHART I. ONE-WAY COMMUNICATION



INSTRUCTIONS: Study the figures above. With your back to the group, you are to instruct the participants how to draw them. Begin with the top square and describe each in succession, taking particular note of the relationship of each to the preceding one. No questions are allowed.

CHART II. TWO-WAY COMMUNICATION



INSTRUCTIONS: Study the figures above. Facing the group, you are to instruct the participants how to draw them. Begin with the top square and describe each in succession, taking particular note of the relation of each to the preceding one. Answer all questions from participants and repeat if necessary.

NONVERBAL CLASS

The idea for the nonverbal class came from the sixth grade linguistics book. It was suggested as a transition from studying nonverbal communication to studying verbal communication.

Students discussed the idea and agreed to plan the next class as a "class without words."

Ideas discussed included:

- Charades
- Games--checkers, cards, etc.
- Trying to make people talk
- Give directions
- Skits

The students settled on each person coming to class prepared to give a nonverbal direction and designate another student to respond nonverbally. If time permitted, games would be played.

Before the students entered the room for class, I put a slip of paper containing another student's name on each desk. This slip would indicate to whom each student would give his directions. As the students entered, one of the slips was blown off the desk and lost. I had to communicate to the girl whose desk was empty why she had no slip. When her turn came, she looked at me and shrugged her shoulders. I indicated the entire class with a sweep of my hand, and she chose a classmate and gave her directions. At this, one of the boys got frantic and tried to indicate to me that something was really wrong. Finally he rushed over and showed me his slip. The name on it was the girl just chosen. I tried to calm him, but it was difficult with no words to convince him that it was all right.

Some of the directions the students gave included opening and closing windows and doors, carrying objects from one place to another, pulling down and up maps, writing on and erasing the board, feeding the gerbils, cleaning desks, shaking hands, running, skipping, hopping, dancing, etc.

Sometimes a student couldn't understand the direction. Then there were always willing volunteers eager to help out.

This exercise lasted about 30 minutes. Then we got out various kinds of games--word games, puzzles, cards, checkers, etc. After a few minutes when the action became heated, some students started to grunt and groan and make all sorts of noises without actually using words.

When it was time for the bell, I indicated clean-up by picking up a box and putting the parts of the game back into it. Everyone was verbally and visibly relieved when the bell rang.

The next day we evaluated the class. The most common reaction was "it was fun," followed by "let's do it again."

The students brought out their frustration at not understanding directions and not being understood when they tried to communicate. They also noted how the class began grunting and groaning toward the end of the period. They wondered if, perhaps, that was how speech began.

Not a bad note to end on???

FEEDBACK EXERCISE

(1 hour)

1. Purpose:

   How much you have learned about each other.

2. Procedure:

   A. Each person in turn will serve as the "key person"

      1. "Key person" must maintain a poker face throughout

   B. Each of the other members in turn will describe his perception of the "key person" as a sixteen-year-old

      1. Include such factors as

         a. Size of community

         b. Size of family

         c. Types of friends

         d. Behavior

         e. Interests

         f. Achievements

   C. If you knew the person as a sixteen-year-old or if you know what he was like, pass.

   D. After each member of the group has spoken, the key person reveals what he really was like at sixteen.

FEEDBACK RATING SCALE

NAME

GROUP MEETING NUMBER

"Feedback" is a way of helping another person to consider changing his behavior. It is communication to a person (or a group) which gives that person information about how he affects others. As in a guided missile system, feedback helps an individual keep his behavior "on target" and thus better achieve his goals.

Below are listed eight criteria of useful feedback. Rate the feedback which usually occurs in your group on each of the eight scales by circling the appropriate number. You may also want to make some notes on each criterion, such as particular instances which you remember from your group.

1. It is descriptive rather than evaluative. By describing one's own reaction, it leaves the individual free to use it or not to use it as he sees fit. By avoiding evaluative language, it reduces the need for the individual to respond defensively.

Descriptive 1 2 3 4 5 6 Evaluative

Comments:

2. It is specific rather than general. To be told that one is "dominating" will probably not be as useful as to be told that "just now when we were deciding the issue, you did not listen to what others said, and I felt forced to accept your arguments or face attack from you."

Specific 1 2 3 4 5 6 General

Comments:

3. It takes into account the needs of both the receiver and giver of feedback. Feedback can be destructive when it serves only our own needs and fails to consider the needs of the person on the receiving end.

Takes needs of both into account	1	2	3	4	5	6	Does not take needs of both into account

Comments:

4. It is directed toward behavior which the receiver can do something about. Frustration is only increased when a person is reminded of some shortcoming over which he has no control.

Directed towards modifiable behavior	1	2	3	4	5	6	Directed towards non-modifiable behavior

Comments:

5. It is solicited, rather than imposed. Feedback is most useful when the receiver himself has formulated the kind of question which those observing him can answer.

Solicited	1	2	3	4	5	6	Imposed

Comments:

6. It is well-timed. In general, feedback is most useful at the earliest opportunity after the given behavior (depending, of course, on the person's readiness to hear it, support available from others, etc.).

Well-timed	1	2	3	4	5	6	Poorly-timed

Comments:

7. It is checked to insure clear communication. One way of doing this is to have the receiver try to rephrase the feedback he has received to see if it corresponds to what the sender had in mind.

Checked with sender	1	2	3	4	5	6	Not checked with sender

Comments:

8. When feedback is given in a training group, both giver and receiver have opportunity to check with others in the group the accuracy of the feedback. Is this one man's impression or an impression shared by others?

Checked with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	Not checked with others

Comments:

THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP

I. General Observations

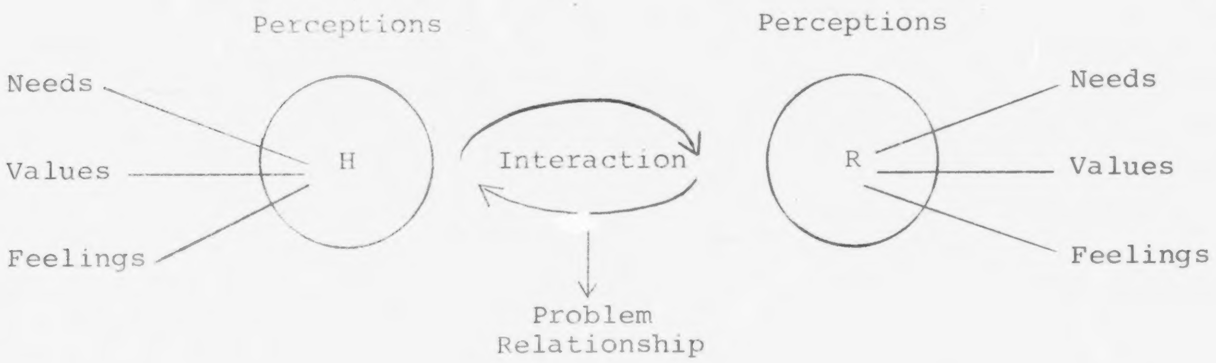
1. Different names are used to designate the helping process such as counseling, teaching, guiding, training, educating, etc.

2. They have in common that the helping person is trying to influence (and therefore change) the individual who is being helped.

3. The expectation is furthermore that the direction of the change in the receiver of help will be constructive and useful to him, (i.e., clarify his perceptions of the problem, bolster his self-confidence, modify his behavior or develop new skills, etc.)

II. One Way to Visualize the Helping Situation

1. One way to look at the helping situation is to sketch it in the following manner.



2. The helping situation is dynamic, i.e., characterized by interaction which is both verbal and nonverbal, and relationships.

3. The helping person has needs (biological and psychological), feelings, and a set of values.

4. The receiver of help has needs (biological and psychological), feelings, and a set of values.

5. Both helper and the receiver of help are trying to satisfy needs in the situation.

6. The helper has perceptions of himself, of the receiver of help, of the problem, and of the entire situation (expectancies, roles, standards, etc.)

7. The receiver of help has perceptions of himself, of the helper, of the problems, and of the entire situation (expectancies, roles, standards, etc.)

8. The interaction takes place in relation to some need or problem which may be external to the two individuals, interwoven with the relationship of the two individuals, or rooted in the relationship between the two individuals. Wherever the beginning point and the focus of emphasis is, the relationship between the two individuals becomes an important element in the helping situation as soon as interaction begins.

9. His needs, values and feelings, and his perception of them as well as his perception of the situation (including the problems and the helper) cause the receiver of help to have certain objectives in the interaction which takes place.

10. His needs, values and feelings, and his perception of them as well as his perception of the situation (including the problem and the receiver of help) cause the helper to have certain objectives in the interaction which takes place.

11. Both helper and receiver of help have power, i.e., influence, in relation to the helping situation. Except for surface conformity or breaking off the interaction, however, it is the receiver of help who controls the question of whether in the final analysis change takes place.

III. To depict the helping situation as above suggests its complexity. It is not easy to give help to another individual in such a way that he will be strengthened in doing a better job of handling his situation. Nor is it easy to receive help from another person, that is the kind of help which makes us more adequate in dealing with our problems. If we really listen and reflect upon the situations in which we are in either the helper or helping role, we not only are impressed with the magnitude and range of the problems involved in the helping situation, but also realize that we can keep on learning as a helping person or a person receiving help as long as we live.

IV. Let us reflect on some of the things about us that make it difficult to receive help.

1. It is hard to really admit our difficulties even to ourselves. It may be even harder to admit them to someone else. There are concerns sometimes whether we can really trust the other person, particularly if it is in a work or other situation which might affect our standing. We may also be afraid of what the other person thinks of us.

2. We may have struggled so hard to make ourselves independent persons that the thought of depending on another individual seems to violate something within us. Or we may all our lives

have looked for someone on whom to be dependent and we try to repeat this pattern in our relationship with the helping person.

3. We may be looking for sympathy and support rather than for help in seeing our difficulty more clearly. We ourselves may have to change as well as others in the situation. When the helper tries to point out some of the ways we are contributing to the problem, we may stop listening. Solving a problem may mean uncovering some of the sides of ourselves which we have avoided or wished to avoid thinking about.

4. We may feel our problem is so unique no one could ever understand it and certainly not an outsider.

V. Let us reflect upon some of the things which make it difficult for us to give help.

1. Most of us like to give advice. Doing so suggests to us that we are competent and important. We easily get caught in a telling role without testing whether our advice is appropriate to the abilities, the fears, or the powers of the person we are trying to help.

2. If the person we are trying to help becomes defensive, we may try to argue or pressure him--meet resistance with more pressure and increase resistance. This is typical in argument.

3. We may confuse the relationship by only responding to one aspect of what we see in the other's problem by over-praising, avoiding recognition that the person being counseled must see his own role and his own limitations as well.

VI. To be fruitful, the helping situation needs these characteristics:

1. Mutual trust

2. Recognition that the helping situation is a joint exploration.

3. Listening, with the helper listening more than the individual receiving help.

4. Behavior by the helper which is calculated to make it easier for the individual receiving help to talk.

VII. Because we are human, the potential for all the weaknesses and the strengths, the follies, and the wisdom known to man exists at some level within us.

Human beings become more capable of dealing with their problems as success experiences give them a greater sense of adequacy to meet situations. This does not imply avoiding a recognition of the conflict issues and the inadequacies but a recognition as well of the strengths and the success experiences.

HELPING PAIRS

Goals:

I. To build helping relationships ancillary to small group experiences.

II. To give participants an opportunity to try out new behavior within a dyadic relationship.

III. To provide group members with ways of checking out their perceptions of and reaction to laboratory experiences.

Materials Utilized:

I. Goal Assessment Forms.

II. Group Member Interview Guides.

Process:

Several variations have been developed for using helping pairs in human relations laboratories. Four of the more common are described below.

1. Goal-Assessment Pairs: Partners meet three times during the group's life--near the beginning for an initial assessment of their goals, about the middle of the laboratory experience for a second assessment, and toward the end of the experience. They follow instructions on the Goal Assessment Forms (Materials I). No forms are used at the third meeting.)

2. Risk-Taking Pairs: Partners meet twice, for each to tell the other what sensitive, interpersonal risk he is going to take during that day and to commit himself to meeting a second time during the day to check out what occurred. Partners help each other to specify what is a risk for the individual person and support each other in trying new behavior.

3. No-Exit Dyads: Partners meet daily (or weekly) for at least thirty minutes and use the time any way they wish. The only requirement is that they continue to meet regularly throughout the laboratory experience. This exercise simulates "back-home" dyadic relationships that are permanent and affords participants an opportunity to experiment with changing no-exit relationships in which he is involved.

4. Interviewing Pairs: Group members are paired off and take turns interviewing each other according to the Interview Guide (Materials II). Each person later gives a brief report on the results of interviewing his partner.

GOAL ASSESSMENT FORM

Initial Assessment

Page 1

Step 1: Instructions.

Take three to five minutes to write in the space below one to three answers to the following question:

WHAT DO I WANT MOST TO LEARN FROM THIS LABORATORY EXPERIENCE?

(State your responses as clearly as you can, and do not turn to page 2 until your partner has finished writing.)

GOAL ASSESSMENT FORM

Initial Assessment

Page 2

Step 2: Revealing and Clarifying Personal Goals.

Take turns going through the following procedure:

a. Read aloud your answers to the question on page 1.

b. Discuss the goals using the following guidelines:

1. Is the goal specific enough to permit direct planning and action?

2. Is the goal personally involving, i.e., does it require personal effort?

3. Is the goal realistic? Can significant progress be made in the time available in the lab?

4. How can others in this lab help you work on these goals?

c. At this point each of you may need to revise your goal descriptions so that they make sense to you. Rewrite your goals and keep them for later reference.

GOAL ASSESSMENT FORM

Initial Assessment

Page 2

Step 2: Revealing and Clarifying Personal Goals.

Take turns going through the following procedure:

a. Read aloud your answers to the question on page 1.

b. Discuss the goals using the following guidelines:

   1. Is the goal specific enough to permit direct planning and action?

   2. Is the goal personally involving, i.e., does it require personal effort?

   3. Is the goal realistic? Can significant progress be made in the time available in the lab?

   4. How can others in this lab help you work on these goals?

c. At this point each of you may need to revise your goal descriptions so that they make sense to you. Rewrite your goals and keep them for later reference.

GOAL ASSESSMENT FORM

Second Assessment

Earlier you prepared your initial assessment of personal goals for this lab. A purpose of this session is to reexamine your goals in light of your experiences so far. Use the questions under Step 2, Revealing and Clarifying Personal Goals, to help modify your goal statements.

Take turns reassessing and discussing your goals. Describe how you have tried to make progress in attaining your goals. When finished, write your modified and/or reconfirmed goals.

GROUP MEMBER INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interviewee

Interviewer

Directions:

1. Decide who will be the first to be interviewed.
2. Conduct a ten-minute interview, focusing on the questions below. The interviewer should take notes and feed back to the interviewee a paraphrase after each question. The goals are openness and accurate listening.
3. After ten minutes repeat the process by switching roles.
4. Take about three minutes to talk about the interviewing experience.
5. In the total group give a brief report on the person whom you interviewed.

Interview Questions:

1. What personal goals do you have which you might work toward in this group? (Be as specific as possible.)

2. What concerns do you have about this group? (Be as specific as possible.)

3. What personal concerns are you willing to share with the group right now? (For example, concerns about particular group members, about how you see yourself, about your impact on the group, your interpersonal relationships, etc.)

AN EXPERIMENT IN COOPERATION

COOPERATION SQUARES GAME

Purpose:

To become more sensitive to how one's behavior may help or hinder joint problem solving.

Setting:

The exercise can be used by students in the upper-elementary grades or above and takes about 45 minutes.

Procedure:

1. Before class, prepare a set of squares and an instruction sheet for each five students. (See sheets A and B).
2. Divide the class into groups of five and seat each group at a table equipped with a set of envelopes and an instruction sheet.
3. Ask that the envelopes be opened only on signal.
4. Begin the exercise by asking what cooperation means. List on the board the requirements for cooperation. Example:

   Everyone has to understand the problem.
   Everyone needs to believe that he can help.
   Instructions need to be clear.
   Everyone needs to think of the other person as well as himself.
5. Describe the experiment as a puzzle that can only be solved with cooperation. Read the instruction aloud, point out that each table has a reference copy, then give the signal to open the envelopes.
6. When all or most of the groups have finished, call time and discuss the experience.

Analysis:

Ask such questions as:
1. How do you feel at the end of the exercise? Did your feelings change during the exercise? .
2. Did you experience the stated purpose of this exercise? (From above).
3. How did you feel when someone held a piece and did not see the solution?

4. What was your reaction when someone finished his square and then sat back without seeing whether his solution prevented others from solving the problem?

5. What were your feelings if you finished your square and then began to realize that you would have to break it up and give a piece away?

6. How did you feel about the person who was slow at seeing the solution?

7. If you were that person, how did you feel?

8. Was there a climate that helped or hindered?

9. How many real-life situations can you list where cooperation might be desirable?

10. I learned that ____.

If students have helped to monitor, they may have observations they wish to share.

In summarizing the discussion, the teacher may wish to review the factors in cooperation listed at the beginning. He may also want to ask whether the exercise relates to the way the class works from day to day.

Materials:

Set of squares and instruction sheet for each five participants

Table for each five participants

Stiff paper

Envelopes

AN EXPERIMENT IN COOPERATION - A

A puzzle set consists of five envelopes containing pieces of stiff paper cut into patterns that will form 6" x 6" squares, as shown in the diagram. Several individual combinations will be possible but only one total combination. Cut each square into the parts a through j and lightly pencil in the letters. Then mark the envelopes A through E and distribute the pieces thus: Envelope A-i, h, e

B-a,a,a,c

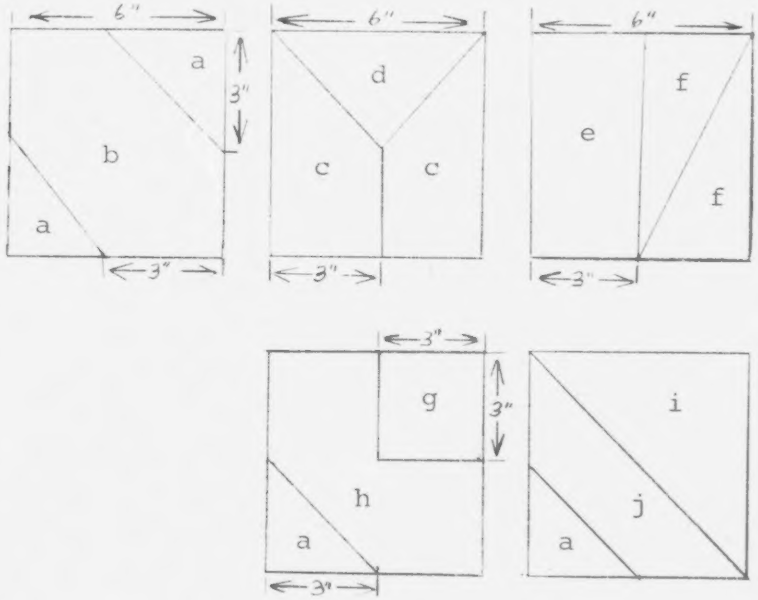
C-a,j

D-d,f

E-g,b,f,c

Erase the small letters and write instead the envelope letter A through E, so that the pieces can be easily returned for reuse.

By using multiples of three inches, several combinations will form one or two squares. Only one combination will form five 6" x 6" squares.



AN EXPERIMENT IN COOPERATION-B

Instruction Sheet

Each person should have an envelope containing pieces for forming squares. At the signal, the task of the group is to form five squares of equal size. The task is not complete until everyone has before him a perfect square and all the squares are of the same size.

These are the rules:

1. No member may speak.

2. No member may ask for a card or in any way signal that he wants one.

3. Members may give cards to others.

LEADERSHIP FOR PLANNED CHANGE

Change is unsettling because we must give up some behavior we are skilled in and acquire new behavior in which we lack skill. Uncertainty and ambiguity stimulate us to search for meaning in the new situation and then to react in terms of the meaning we construct. If, on the basis of the constructed meaning, we believe we will be worse off after the change, we will resist the change.

Some Generalizations About Human Behavior

1. Behavior depends on both the person and his environment.
2. Each individual behaves in ways which make sense to him.
3. An individual's perception of a situation influences his behavior in that situation.
4. An individual's view of himself influences what he does.
5. An individual's behavior is influenced by his needs, which vary from person to person and from time to time.

Therefore, it is important to:

1. Build group norms and organization norms that support the change. An organization-wide change requires the involvement and support of top managers as what they say and do is a powerful standard that influences the behavior of other managers in formal organizations.

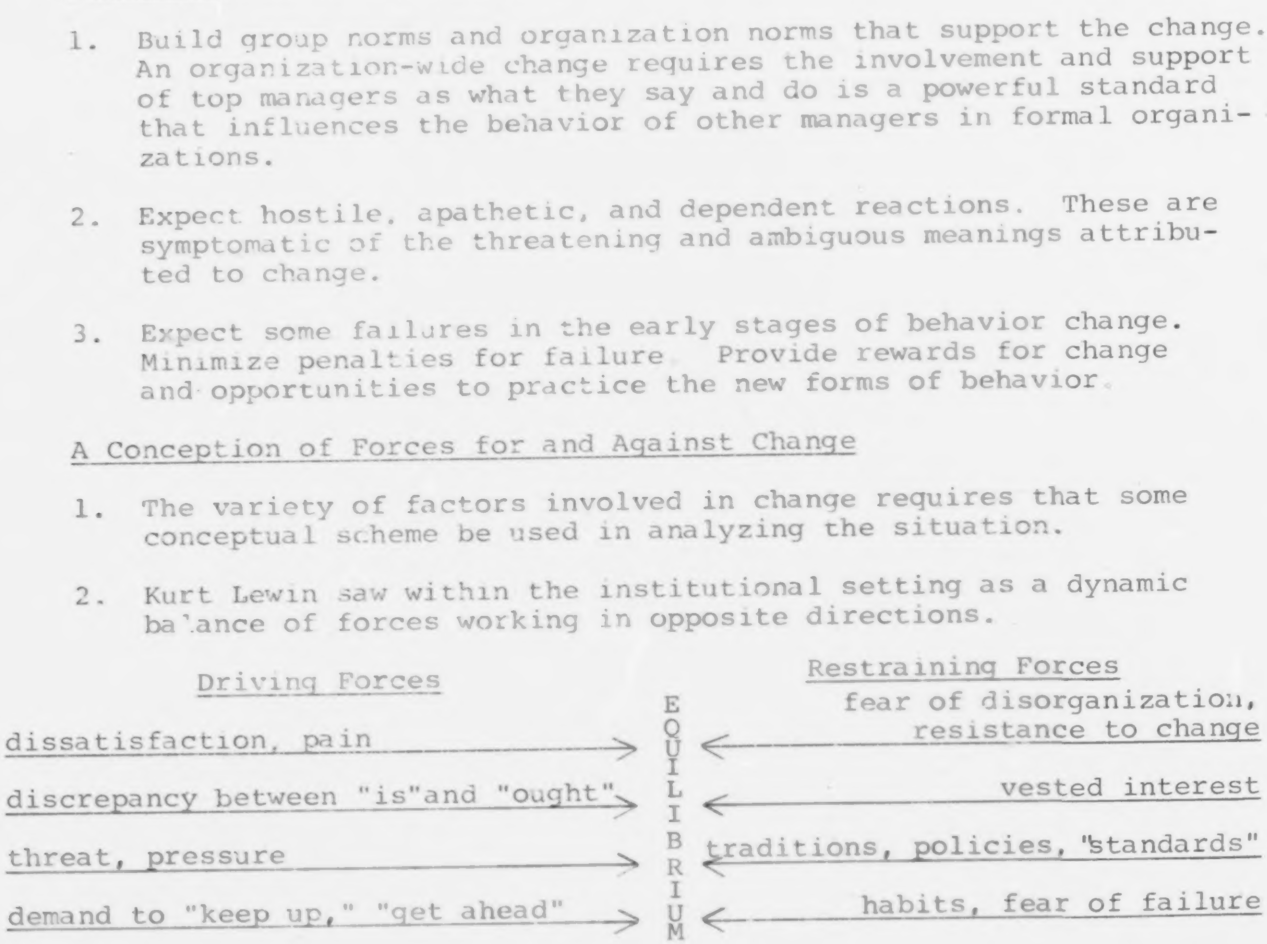
2. Expect hostile, apathetic, and dependent reactions. These are symptomatic of the threatening and ambiguous meanings attributed to change.

3. Expect some failures in the early stages of behavior change. Minimize penalties for failure. Provide rewards for change and opportunities to practice the new forms of behavior.

A Conception of Forces for and Against Change

1. The variety of factors involved in change requires that some conceptual scheme be used in analyzing the situation.

2. Kurt Lewin saw within the institutional setting as a dynamic balance of forces working in opposite directions.


Driving Forces
Restraining Forces
EQUILIBRIUM
dissatisfaction, pain
fear of disorganization, resistance to change
discrepancy between "is"and "ought"
vested interest
threat, pressure
traditions, policies, "standards"
demand to "keep up," "get ahead"
habits, fear of failure

3. Take, for example, the production level of a work team in a factory. This level fluctuates within narrow limits above and below a certain number of units of production per day. Why does this pattern persist? Because, Lewin says, the forces that tend to raise the level of production are equal to the forces that tend to depress it. Among the forces tending to raise the level of production might be: (a) the pressures of supervisors on the work team to produce more; (b) the desire of at least some team members to attract favorable attention from supervisors in order to get ahead individually; (c) the desire of team members to earn more under the incentive plan of the plant. Such forces Lewin called "driving forces." Among the forces tending to lower the level of production might be: (a) a group standard in the production team against "rate busting" or "eager beavering" by individual workers; (b) resistance of team members to accepting training and supervision from management; (c) feelings by workers that the product they are producing is not important. Granted the goal of increased productivity, these forces are "restraining forces." The balance between the two sets of forces, which defines the established level of production, Lewin called a "quasi-stationary equilibrium."

   According to Lewin, this type of thinking about patterns of institutionalized behavior applied not only to levels of production in industry but also to such patterns as levels of discrimination in communities; atmosphere of democracy or autocracy in social agencies; supervisor-teacher-pupil relationships in school systems; and formal or informal working relationships among levels of a hospital organization.

4. Change takes place when imbalance occurs between the sum of the restraining forces and the sum of the driving forces. This imbalance unfreezes equilibrium.

5. Imbalances occur when forces change in direction, magnitude, or when new forces are added.

6. When an imbalance occurs between the forces and unfreezes the pattern, the level changes until the driving and restraining forces return to equilibrium in a new position.

7. Planned change uses situational forces to accomplish unfreezing, change, and stabilization.

8. Imbalances occur if
   - one or more driving forces are increased
   - one or more restraining forces are decreased
   - a combination of the above
   - a new force is added

Some Generalizations About Planned Change

It is certain that a leader cannot minimize the problems which will result from opposition to a change effort. However, leadership in bringing about change can be more effective if the following points are kept in mind:

1. Exerting strong force (increasing driving forces) through influence of authority in the effort to initiate or maintain a change process may bring about strong reactions against the change. Pressure invites counter-pressure. Tension is likely to mount causing increasing instability and unpredictability.

2. It is probably more effective to release resisting forces (decrease restraining forces) by opening up communication, by creating a climate in which feelings can be freely expressed, or by helping opposition actually to work through their reasons for resistance. This emphasizes the need for openness and non-judgmental approach in the responses of a leader.

3. Before a leader initiates change efforts, he should examine his assumptions about persons, the nature of the organization, the value of the goal he is seeking, and the importance of the change itself.

4. Change takes place in the day-by-day relationships of people. Whenever we talk about planned change, we are talking about people. To introduce changes as if people were not involved is to threaten the change effort with defeat. No change is ever "little"--it is likely to be a big step for someone.

5. The attitude of a leader toward other persons is probably more critical than the nature of the change itself.

6. People fear change because it undermines their security. In introducing change of any kind, and of whatever magnitude, the leader needs to introduce support and help for the people affected.

7. The process of change is helped when the persons who will be affected can participate in the decision-making process and in planning for the change. The greater the participation, the more opportunity to identify personal resistances. The greater the participation, the more assurance people have of being able to influence the direction and the impact of the change.

Some Generalizations About Strategy for Effecting Change

1. To change a subsystem or any part of a subsystem, relevant aspects of the environment must also be changed.

2. To change behavior on any one level of a hierarchical organization, it is necessary to achieve complementary and reinforcing changes in organization levels above and below that level.

3. The place to begin change is at those points in the system where some stress and strain exist. Stress may give rise to dissatisfaction with the status quo and thus become a motivating factor for change in the system.

4. If thoroughgoing changes in a hierachical structure are desirable to necessary, change should ordinarily start with the policy-making body.

5. Both the formal and the informal organization of an institution must be considered in planning any process of change.

6. The effectiveness of a planned change is often directly related to the degree to which members at all levels of an institutional hierarchy take part in the fact-finding and the diagnosing of needed changes and in formulating and reality-testing of goals and programs of change.

Role of the Change Leader

When we look at the change process from the standpoint of the knowledges, sensitivities and skills required by a changeleader, the simple change sequence of unfreezing, movement and refreezing can be usefully expanded into a more complex set of phases. Eight phases are recognized here.

1. Diagnosis of the problem of the client system--what is the trouble and what seems to be causing the trouble?

2. Assessment of the motivation and the capacity of the client system to change itself,--what are the readinesses and resistances to various possibilities of change within the client system? Is there awareness of the need for change? Is it permissible to look at the central problems? Is there a feeling that change will be rewarding? Is there any anxiety about staying in the present position?

3. Assessment of the motivations and resources of the change leader--why does the change leader want to help the client, and what are the practical, ethical, psychological, sociological and other limits of his ability to give help to a particular client system?

4. Establishing and maintaining a working relationship with the client system--how to get a mutually acceptable and commonly understood picture of the responsibilities of the change leader and of the client in the client's efforts to solve its (or his) own problem?

5. Choosing the appropriate role--shall the change leader mediate or counsel? Demonstrate or encourage? Represent some wider reality to the client system or support the client in its or his peculiar view of reality?

6. Selecting appropriate change objectives and targets--of all the possibilities of change, which are most important and within the power of the client to accomplish and what is, all things considered, the best first step to take in an experimental attempt to change?

7. Provide support and encouragement for changed behavior--what are the rewards for new responses? Provide opportunities to practice new responses. Remove rewards for old responses. Is the change consistent with organization standards?

8. Termination (or new continuity) of helping relationship--when and how does the change leader pull out and leave the client on his own?

These are phases, not chronological steps or stages, of a helping process. Phase 1, 2, and 3, for example, may come up again and again for reconsideration during the process of consultation, supervision or training. And so with all the others, except perhaps Phase 8, the termination of the relationship.

Change is truly accomplished when a new level of performance and effectiveness can be maintained without reducing the freedom of persons, and without requiring continued expenditure of energy and effort to maintain the change.

References:

Benne, Kenneth: Bennis, Warren; and Chin, Robert (Eds.) The Planning of Change. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970.
Bennett, Thomas R., The Leader and the Process of Change. New York: Association Press, 1966.
Lippitt, Ronald; Watson, Jeanne: and Westley, Bruce. Dynamics of Planned Change. New York: Harcourt Brace and Co., 1958.

PROBLEM ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE

PART I. Problem Specification

Think about a problem that is significant in your back-home situations. Respond to each item as fully as needed so that another participant will be able to understand the problem.

1. I understand the problem to be specifically that...

2. The following people with whom I must deal are involved in the problem:

   Their status of involvement is...

   They relate to me and to the problem in the following manner:

3. I consider these other factors to be relevant to the problem:

4. I would choose the following aspect of the problem to be changed if it were in my power to do so (choose only one aspect):

PART II: Thrusting and Counter-Thrusting Forces

5. If I consider the present status of the problem to be a temporary balance of opposing forces, the following would be on my list of forces providing thrust toward change:

_____ a. ____

_____ b. ____

_____ c. ____

_____ d. ____

_____ e. ____

_____ f. ____

_____ g. ____

_____ h. ____

6. The following would be on my list of forces in counter-thrust to change:

_____ a. ____

_____ b. ____

_____ c. ____

_____ d. ____

_____ e. ____

_____ f. ____

_____ g ____

_____ h. ____

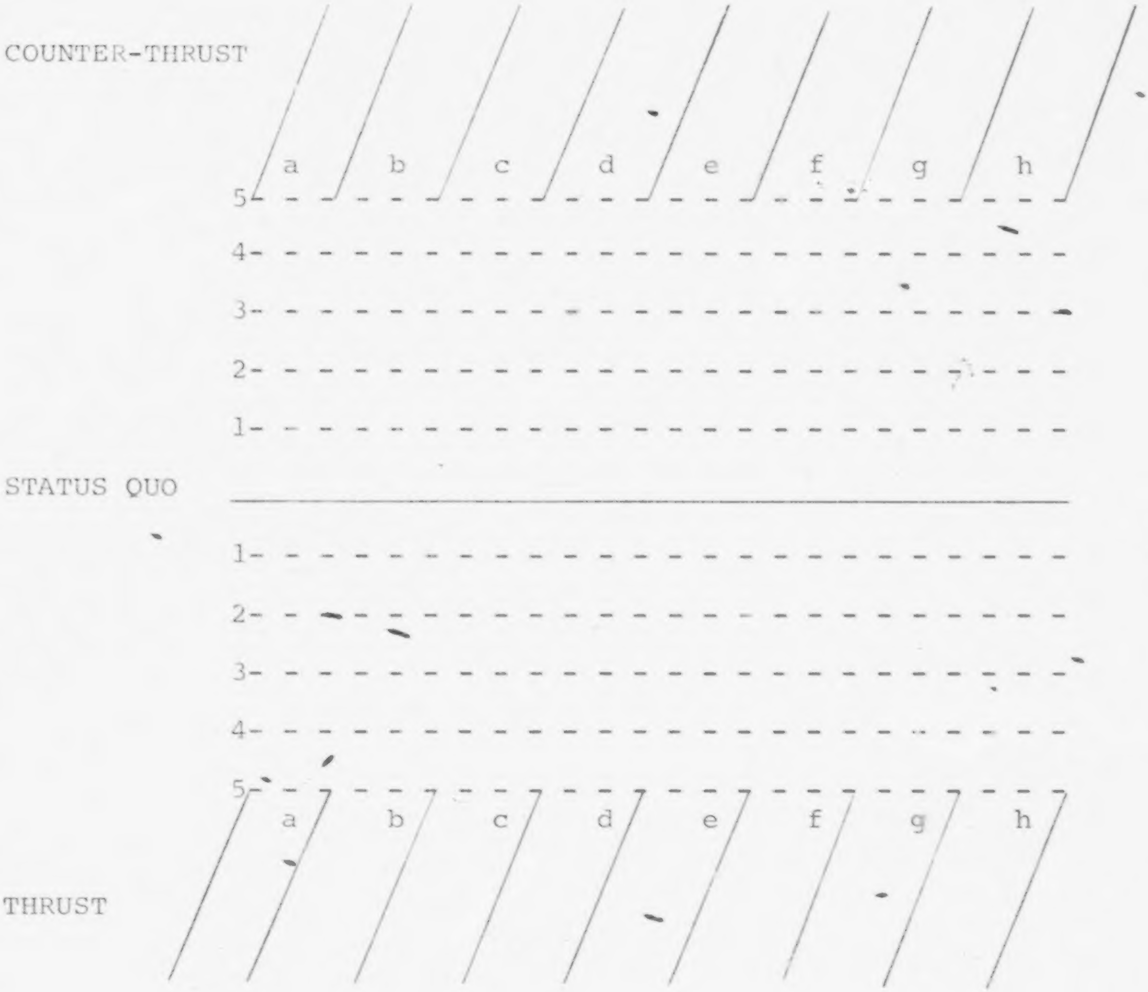
7. In the spaces to the left of the letters in item 5, quantify the forces on a range from one to five in the following manner:

1 - it has almost nothing to do with the thrust toward change in the problem;
2 - it has relatively little to do with the thrust toward change in the problem;
3 - it is of moderate importance in the thrust toward change in the problem;
4 - it is an important factor in the thrust toward change in the problem;
5 - it is a major factor in the thrust toward change in the problem.

PART II (Cont.)

8. Fill in the spaces in front of the letters in item 6 to quantify the forces in counter-thrust to change.

9. Diagram the forces of the thrust and counter-thrust quantified in question 7 by drawing an arrow from the corresponding degree of force to the status quo line. For example, if you considered the first on your list of forces in item 5 to be rated a 3, draw your arrow from the 3 position in the left hand column of numbers indicating thrust up to the status quo line.


COUNTER-THRUST
a
b
c
d
e
f
g
h
5
4
3
2
1
STATUS QUO
1
2
3
4
5
a
b
c
d
e
f
g
h
THRUST

PART III: Strategy for Changing the Status Quo

Detail a strategy for decreasing two or more counterthrust elements from your list from item 6.

T-P LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

T ______________________ P ______________________

______________________ ______________________

Name Group

The following items describe aspects of leadership behavior. Respond to each item according to the way you would be most likely to act if you were the leader of a work group. Circle whether you would be likely to behave in the described way--always (A), frequently (F), occasionally (O), seldom (S), or never (N).

If I were the leader of a work group...

A F O S N 1. I would most likely act as the spokesman of the group.

A F O S N 2. I would allow members complete freedom in their work.

A F O S N 3. I would encourage the use of uniform procedures.

A F O S N 4. I would permit the members to use their own judgment in solving problems.

A F O S N 5. I would needle members for greater effort.

A F O S N 6. I would let the members do their work the way they think best.

A F O S N 7. I would keep the work moving at a rapid pace.

A F O S N 8. I would turn the members loose on a job, and let them go to it.

A F O S N 9. I would settle conflicts when they occur in the group.

A F O S N 10. I would be reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action.

A F O S N 11. I would decide what shall be done and how it shall be done.

A F O S N 12. I would push for increased production.

A F O S N 13. I would assign group members to particular tasks.

A F O S N 14. I would be willing to make changes.

A F O S N 15. I would schedule the work to be done.

A F O S N 16. I would refuse to explain my actions.

A F O S N 17. I would persuade others that my ideas are to be to their advantage.

A F O S N 18. I would permit the group to set its own pace.

TRUST WALK

Purpose:

a) To learn new ways of expressing one's feelings, independent of one's vocabulary.

b) To express feeling authentically using nonverbal symbolism.

c) To focus on nonverbal cues one emits, often unconsciously.

d) To hopefully build more of a feeling of trust between participants.

e) To develop the skills of leadership.

f) To develop the skill of listening.

Group Size:

May be any size, from small group to classroom size. If more than 20, break into groups of 10.

Age of Group:

May be used with any group, early primary through adult.

Time Required:

Twenty minutes to one-half hour. With younger children, consider limiting to 10 minutes discussion, 5-10 minutes demonstration.

Instructions to Facilitator:

Describe trust walk: There will be a leader. There will be a person who is to be led. The person to be led will keep his eyes closed all during the exercise. (Blindfold if no objection from person to be led.) The object of the exercise is to have the leader lead another person through a maze which can be constructed by the remainder of the class with desks, chairs, and tables. Leader must give oral instructions and gently guide with arm and hand pressure another person through the maze. The person guided follows instructions and does as the leader suggests.

HERE'S LOOKING AT YOU

1. What characteristics do you like in your best friend?

2. Who do you think is the happiest student in this room?

3. What person in the room do you trust the most?

4. Who do you most admire?

POSITIVE TRAITS	NEGATIVE TRAITS

ROLE PLAYING

Purpose:

To help children understand themselves and others. To teach interpersonal and group skills. To enrich the study of persons of distant times and places.

Setting:

The exercise can be used with any age group. The time limit can vary from a few minutes to an entire class period.

Procedure:

Although many teachers are familiar with the potential value of role playing, they feel too uncomfortable in the director role to make full use of it. For that reason, the procedure is presented here as a series of steps designed to help both teacher and class develop role-playing skills.

1. Teachers unfamiliar with the introduction of role playing might begin by asking students to put themselves in the place of figures they are studying. When a teacher asks, for example. "What feelings do you think Columbus had at that moment when the queen finally agreed to support his venture?" he is introducing an essential component of role playing: identification with another person or role. When a class discusses a character's feelings, the subject becomes more real, and the students realize that they can use their own emotions as a guide to help them understand the feelings of others.

2. Asking students to take the parts of characters in a story or historical situation adds a second dimension of role playing.

    a. Choose the situation and actors and give the actors a few minutes to adjust themselves to their roles.

    b. Begin the action.

    c. When you sense that the students have achieved a peak of involvement, stop the action and open discussion of the scene.

    d. First have the role players tell how they felt in their own roles and what they felt about the other players; then have the rest of the class join in to discuss their observations. Questions like, "From the way Joe acted, how do you think Abraham Lincoln felt in that situation?" and "How did Joe seem to feel when Mary reacted the way she did?" will highlight the emotional aspects of the interaction.

3. Developing characters within the context of a social studies unit introduces a deeper level of participation by calling for a more personal contribution from the students than does recreating a specific historical or fictional character. For example, children learning about Eskimos might act out the scene in which the men of the village are returning from a successful hunt.

   a. Have the class develop the cast of characters (the Eskimo scene might include the leader, two or three followers, village women and children) and select the players. Then groups of two or three can help each actor develop his role.

   b. Set the scene and begin the action, which may continue until it reaches a natural close or until the actors seem to be losing steam. In other cases, the scene might be stopped when it has gone far enough to generate material for a class discussion.

   c. As in the previous case, discussion can begin by centering on how each player felt when cast in the role he played. Later, it can move to more general interchange about life for each kind of person in the village.

4. Improvise a role-playing scene in response to something that happens in the classroom--a misunderstanding between children or between child and teacher, the failure of a group to follow directions, or a classroom accident that might have been avoided are some examples.

   In this kind of situation, it is often useful to have the actual participants exchange roles and act out the situation following the procedure previously outlined. After a discussion of "what might have been done differently," the scene can be replayed by the same actors.

5. Let the class choose a problem it wishes to explore by role playing. It can then establish the situation and cast the characters in terms of its own inside-or outside-the-classroom concerns. After the initial role-playing situation has produced some insight into the problem, the participants replay the situation so that they can become more confident in managing the particular situation.

Materials:

None

ROLE-PLAYING SITUATIONS

1. Mr. D is a rapid eater; he has many business pressures. When he developed chronic indigestion, he wasn't surprised--pressure of business, etc.--he dashed out to a discount drug store and purchased a good supply of antiacids. Now he feels he is prepared and will not run short or lose time from this annoying discomfort because in his desk are such aids as Tums, Rollaids, Milk of Magnesia tablets--and many more, none of which can ever be harmful.

2. Grandma does not like having so many little pill bottles around. She has heard of hypochondriacs and does not want anyone to think she is one. She has emptied these many small bottles into one attractive old glass cannister which she sets on the breakfast table. It is handy, pretty, and she will not forget to take her pills. Good idea? If not, why not?

3. Mary is concerned about her children accidentally taking poison. For her family she set up two medicine cabinets. One is under lock and key--all "dangerous drugs" are kept here and no one but mom or dad ever open this cabinet. The other has simple home remedies such as aspirin, antiseptics, etc., which the children can get when needed. Is Mary's plan sound?--explain your answer.

4. Family W uses many aspirins. They have a chance to get them on sale--three bottles each containing 1,000 tablets at a very low price. The bottles are too large to go in the family medicine cabinet so mother stores two in the medicine cabinet--the one that is in use had to go on the kitchen shelf. What is good and what is poor or bad about this situation?

5. Sue learned in health class that aspirin is aspirin whether it's a name label such as Bayer or made and packaged by her local pharmacist at a discount counter. She feels she must help the family save money and purchases them at the 19-cent counter rather than the 59 cents for the brand name--however, whenever she takes one, she is so nervous and upset about its purity, she does not know whether the upset stomach and increased headache are due to "impurities" in the drug--her imagination--or just undue stress over the situation. Can you solve Mary's problem for her?

6. Grandpa has been having such backaches they keep him awake. Grandma is sure it is kidney trouble just like her brother had. Fortunately they saw an "ad" in Sunday's paper for a natural remedy--natures herbs--no drugs--for such an ailment. She is sure this must be what helped her brother so they send their dollar for a month's supply. What is wrong in this story?

7. Sarah has a very red itching skin--almost a rash. Aunt Jane has an excellent ointment she uses "for just everything." As long as it is only rubbed on the skin, no harm can be done, so Sarah better quit stalling and take Aunt Jane's advice and try it. Is this proper procedure?

8. My friend says she purchased "over the counter" the very same drug I am taking from a prescription for less than half the price. If I need more when this bottle is gone, I am just going to go to her drugstore and get them over the counter. Are there any pitfalls in this situation?

9. Several boys feel the only way they can really find out about marijuana is to try it once. One time never hurt anyone. They are going to do it at a "very private party." Then they will know and their family will never know and won't have to get "all shook up about it." Tom is invited and isn't certain what to do. The pressure is on for "just this once." Nearly "all" their friends plan to attend, Dick said.

10. Jerry's dad is going to be able to get LSD from a "chemist" he knows well. The "stuff" is pure. Under adult supervision, surely no harm can result. This is really an opportunity to see what "this" is all about--no danger involved. Anything wrong with this logic or situation?

11. John goes to mail a letter at the corner drop chute. A nice-looking young man is also mailing a letter. This man hesitates and asks John if he'd be interested in trying a few marijuana cigarettes he is "stuck" with--can give them to him very cheap. Suggests he even split the price with a couple of friends. What should John do? Should he discuss this with the man, run, report the fellow, etc.?

12. Your little sister (you are 12 years old) has a very severe headache--at least she cries and says her head hurts. You are babysitting and give her one baby aspirin. After a half-hour things are no better. Should she be given more aspirin until she is quiet and goes to sleep, as long as they are only baby aspirin; or parents called; doctor called; or spank her and put her to bed?

"HOW MUCH TIME" IS ONE COMPONENT OF DECISIONS:

A SCHOOL HEALTH EDUCATION PROGRAM

	The Program Consists of:
Administrators Module	"How Much Time" (film)
	Perspectives for Administrators
	Strategies for Coordinators
	"One Response" (filmstrip)
Teacher Education Module	Readings
	Processes

Introduction

What is it like to be a twelve-year-old growing up in America in the 1970's? How has the world of youth changed from what it was just a few years ago? Problems that were once thought of as distant and isolated are now upon us with startling commonality. Our vocabulary has expanded: turn on, joint, bad trip, the pill, X rating, exhaust particulates, campus unrest--these words have radically new definitions and connotations. In technology alone, innovations of the last decade are already taken for granted or regarded as obsolete. With our culture changing at this unprecedented rate, have the schools changed to meet new realities? Can they? Should they?

"How Much Time" is designed to raise these questions in the minds of parents, boards of education, teachers, and students. It states visually the emotional, physical, and decision-making problems confronting youth today, contrasting this reality with the day to day reality of education. The question ultimately becomes, can American education afford not to deal with the critical health issues of our rapidly changing culture?

Discussion usually arises spontaneously once impressions of the first viewing have had time to register. This manual provides an overview of "How Much Time" and suggests questions that can be used to extend discussion, to deepen understanding, and to motivate the group toward constructive action.

Overview

The film begins with a polarity. Over a malignantly attractive pan shot of drugs, liquor, and other threats to the stability and health of young people, we hear a classroom lecture on dress and cleanliness, drawn from the usual health textbook. Over this voice Teddy, the boy in the film, discusses irrelevance in education. His doodling reveals the reaction of students to traditional health instruction.

When the bell rings, Teddy bursts from the classroom into the world. Here again is high contrast: in the classroom, boredom and lethargy--in the schoolyard, freedom and joy, all the natural exuberance of youth. Teddy talks about the problems facing young people today, as we follow him through his after-school environment.

This journey, too, demonstrates a contradiction. Our sentimental 19th century image of the carefree youth in a benevolent environment simply does not correspond to 20th century reality. Teddy's experiences involve traffic hazards, erotic advertisements and magazines, pollution.

With the television episode we begin to explore the contribution of the mass media to Teddy's health education. Daily he is subjected to pressures to indulge and consume. The excitement and density of stimuli influence his behavior in ways he only vaguely understands. These pressures are set in a context of ecological crisis, overpopulation, and the violence by which conflicts are acted out in our society. All of this places a tremendous strain on a young person's values and emotions. He must weigh risks and gains, make distinctions, reconcile disparities--sex as part of family life and childbearing, for instance, versus the mass culture's representation of sex as eroticism.

The forces surrounding Teddy build to a climax, after which we see him once more, as all children, accessible to us in a classroom, accessible and very much in need of our help.

The Discussion

A discussion is not a debate. It is an attempt to get people involved and thinking, to exchange ideas, to promote communication and understanding. Although the leader may wish to point out areas of agreement, there is no need to strive for consensus. With adults the important thing is to open their minds to the idea of a modern school health education program, and to solicit their support in its development and implementation. Thus, the less opinion solidifies, the more fruitful the discussion. With students, the idea is to elicit honest responses and meaningful analyses that will lead to informed, well thought out decisions.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

Though the following questions were designed with an adult audience in mind, they can be adapted and augmented for classroom use as well.

1. What problems are reflected in the film?
2. Are these problems overstated? Understated?
3. How has your own community changed in the past five years?
4. What problems exist now that did not exist then?
5. What is happening in society to create these problems?
6. What are the dominant forces in the lives of youth today?
7. What does a person need in order to make wise decisions concerning health, drug use, etc.?
8. Does the school have a role in helping young people deal with their problems?
9. What should be the goals of a school drug abuse education program?
10. In which of the following instructional areas could the school make a valuable contribution?

Consumer education (health-related products and services)

Human growth and development

Family life

Nutrition

Environmental studies

Mental health

Drug use and abuse

Safety and first aid

Disease

Personal health (Physical, social, emotional)

Sociology

Psychology

History

Social Studies

English

11. Who should be involved in developing a school drug abuse education program?

12. What can be done to secure wide community support?

13. What steps can be taken now to begin planning a relevant, workable program?

14. How did you, as a viewer, feel during the film?

15. Do schools really know how much students comprehend? (How effectively do we pre-test and how much use do we make of pre-tests?)

16. Do you (your school, community, etc.) expose your students to what they really have to know?)

17. Would you like your own children to turn out like some teachers you know?

18. What was Teddy thinking at the end of the movie?

19. To me, "How Much Time" meant____

____.

20. List as many value situations in the film as you can.

DAILY JOURNAL

OF COMMUNICATION AND HUMAN RELATIONS SKILLS

1. What do you feel are the most important human relations and communication insights you gained today?

2. How could these insights be applied to a drug education program?

3. What do you feel are the significant insights you gained today relative to changing human behavior?

4. How could these insights be applied to a drug education program?

5. How do I feel about people who use drugs?

MEMBER EVALUATION AND PROCESS ANALYSIS

1. Are your opinions being welcomed by other group members?

They are	They are not	Uncertain
☐	☐	☐

2. How satisfied do you feel with the amount and quality of your participation?

Satisfied	Not satisfied	Uncertain
☐	☐	☐

3. How much responsibility are you taking for the group's progress?

Responsible	Not responsible	Uncertain
☐	☐	☐

4. How committed do you feel to the group's product?

Committed	Not committed	Uncertain
☐	☐	☐

5. How much frustration do you feel?

Frustrated	Not frustrated	Uncertain
☐	☐	☐

6 How good is your group's product?

It is good	Not good	Uncertain
☐	☐	☐

1. Declare a five-year moratorium on the use of all textbooks.

2. Have "English" teachers "teach" Math, Math teachers English, Social Studies teachers Science, Science teachers Art, and so on.

3. Transfer all the elementary-school teachers to high school and vice versa.

4. Require every teacher who thinks he knows his "subject" well to write a book on it.

5. Dissolve all "subjects," "courses," and especially "course requirements."

6. Limit each teacher to three declarative sentences per class, and 15 interrogatives.

7. Prohibit teachers from asking any questions they already know the answers to.

8. Declare a moratorium on all tests and grades.

9. Require all teachers to undergo some form of psycho-therapy as part of their in-service training.

10. Classify teachers according to their ability and make the lists public.

11. Require all teachers to take a test prepared by students on what the students know.

12. Make every class an elective and withhold a teacher's monthly check if his students do not show any interest in going to next month's classes.

13. Require every teacher to take a one-year leave of absence every fourth year to work in some "field" other than education.

14. Require every teacher to provide some sort of evidence that he or she has had a loving relationship with at least one other human being.

15. Require that all the graffiti accumulated in the school toilets be reproduced on large paper and be hung in the school halls.

16. There should be a general prohibition against the use of the following words and phrases: teach, syllabus, covering ground, I.Q., makeup, test, disadvantaged, gifted, accelerated, enhancement, course, grade, score, human nature, dumb, college material, and administrative necessity.

Teaching as a Subversive Activity

SYNTHESIS (½ hour)

I. Use this time to synthesize the major concepts drawn from the morning session by discussion.

    A. Self-Awareness exercise:
        1. Questions went from participants in a group to self
        2. All change begins with the individual

    B. Feedback exercise:
        1. Our personalities do not change that much from 16 on unless they experience crisis which forces them to develop new values.
        2. Gives you a check on your perceptions or guesses for accuracy
            a. Shows how we vary in our ability to read character
            b. You use your perceptions to form opinions of children almost from the moment they step through your door. To what extent is this an accurate picture of each child?
            c. Implications for the classroom - Effort grades are based on character evaluation
        3. Gives the "key person" a chance to check on the type of person he is projecting.

MEETING EVALUATION

1. What aspects of this meeting did you like best?

2. What aspects of this meeting did you like least?

3. In terms of your personal goals regarding content material of substance abuse education (drugs, tobacco, alcohol and others), what aspects of this meeting were of most value?

4. In terms of your personal goals regarding communication skills and understanding human behavior, what aspects of this meeting were of most value?

5. What changes, if any, will you attempt in your own school or classroom as a result of this experience?

6. What suggestions do you have for future meetings?

7. In general, how would you rate this meeting?

Excellent	Good	Fair	So-So	Not So Hot

POST-MEETING REACTIONS

Directions: Below are two sets of statements. You are to rank order the items in each set from 1, Most Like, to 10, Least Like what the meeting was like. Use this procedure: rank 1 first, then 10, then 2, then 9, alternating toward the middle.

The meeting was like this:

( ) There was much warmth and friendliness.

( ) There was a lot of aggressive behavior.

( ) People were uninterested and uninvolved.

( ) People tried to dominate and take over.

( ) We were in need of help.

( ) Much of the conversation was irrelevant.

( ) We were strictly task-oriented.

( ) The members were being very polite.

( ) There was a lot of underlying irratation.

( ) We worked on our process problems.

My behavior was like this:

( ) I was warm and friendly to some.

( ) I did not participate much.

( ) I concentrated on the job.

( ) I tried to get everyone involved.

( ) I took over the leadership.

( ) I was polite to all the members.

( ) My suggestions were frequently off the point.

( ) I was a follower.

( ) I was irritated.

( ) I was eager and aggresive.

LEARNING TO WORK IN GROUPS

Example of Use of Reaction Forms

Training problem: What factors affect overt participation in groups?

Procedure: At the end of the meeting, members take ten minutes to respond to a prepared form with ratings and open end questions on it. For example:

Post Meeting Reaction

1. How did you feel about this meeting? (check)

Very dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Quite satisfied	Very satisfied

2. Please comment on why you felt this way.

3. Were there any times when you wished to speak but did not?

Never	A few times	Fairly often	Very often	Almost all the time

4. What things helped you to take part in the meeting?

5. What things hindered you from taking part in the meeting?

6. How could our next meeting be improved?

Members need not sign their names. The reaction forms are summarized by a committee and reported back to the next meeting as the basis for diagnosis and planning (ex: "Most of the people who were dissatisfied also said they could not get into the discussion." "The most helpful thing was when we were in subgroups").

Comment: As in the example above, reaction sheets can be used not only to improve immediate group functioning, but to help members understand the needs and reactions of others. They may, indeed, alter a member's picture of his own needs ("This discussion has helped me realize that I like to go off in the corner and pout when no one asks for my ideas").

The experience of selecting and building a reaction sheet and using it can itself result in learnings: how to word questions; how to analyze open-end data; how to interpret findings; how to report back information accurately and helpfully.

Sometimes individuals or groups resist using reaction sheets. Attitudes toward them usually depend on: whether the group members actively decided to use them; who will see the results; the kind of questions asked.

REACTION SCALE

1. To what extent are your opinions and thoughts being solicited by the group? I feel:

they are	they are not	undecided
☐	☐	☐

2. How satisfied do you feel with the amount and quality of your participation in moving toward a joint decision? I feel:

satisfied	not satisfied	uncertain
☐	☐	☐

3. How much responsibility for making the decision work do you feel? I feel:

responsible	not responsible	uncertain
☐	☐	☐

4. How committed do you feel to the decision your group is making? I feel:

committed	not committed	uncertain
☐	☐	☐

5. How much frustration do you feel as the work on the decision goes on? I feel:

frustrated	not frustrated	uncertain
☐	☐	☐

6. How good is the decision your group is making? I feel:

it is a good decision	it is not a good decision	uncertain
☐	☐	☐

REACTION FORM

1. The aspects of this meeting I liked most were:

2. The aspects of this meeting I liked least were:

3. For future meetings, I would suggest:

4. During this meeting I learned the following about myself and others:

5. In general, I would rate this meeting:

Excellent	Good	Fair	So-So	Not so hot

GUIDELINES FOR DISCUSSION

of

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

Directions: The questions below should be used as guidelines to your discussion. However, answers to these questions are important. Therefore, each group should appoint a recording secretary, who should take notes, gather consensus on each question and hand in written answers to these questions as well as other problems and/or ideas the group discussed. Thank you for your cooperation.

Questions:

1. Identify the typical criticisms and/or cautions that will probably be voiced by parents, community leaders, teachers and administrators when the idea of a drug, alcohol and tobacco education program is suggested.
2. Does your group believe that the school should assume the function of teaching youngsters about drug, alcohol and tobacco use and abuse? If yes, why? If not, why not?
3. What might be the objective of a drug, alcohol and tobacco education program in your school system?
4. If a program of drug, alcohol and tobacco education were implemented in your school next September, who would be responsible for teaching the content? Why?
5. In what ways should students become involved (if at all) in planning and implementing drug, alcohol and tobacco education programs?
6. In what ways should parents become involved (if at all) in planning and implementing drug, alcohol and tobacco education programs?
7. What curriculum problems may your school system encounter in a drug, alcohol and tobacco education program?
8. What instructional problems may teachers encounter in a drug, alcohol and tobacco education program?
9. In the opinion of your group, will existing instructional strategies be adequate for teaching students about drug, alcohol and tobacco abuse?
    (a) In what ways are the strategies adequate or inadequate?
    (b) In what ways can the strategies be changed or improved?

DRUG EDUCATION AND YOUR SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

Discussion questions to be completed by groups of teachers in each school.

I. In what subject matter area do you feel that drug content and values can best be taught?

II. Do you feel that social studies is an area that will allow for the best teaching and learning of drug content and values?

III. What are the major advantages for incorporating drug content and values in your school's existing social studies program?

IV. What are the major disadvantages for incorporating drug content and values in your school's existing social studies program?

V. What do you feel is the best way to teach youngsters about drug use and abuse; the causes of this use and abuse; and the values and attitudes accompanying such content? State your reasons.

(A) Units on drugs, etc. at each grade level.
(B) Units on drugs, etc. at each grade level and whenever it comes up in other subject matter areas.
(C) Special programs for the whole school.
Example: Large group instruction for students and teachers and then small group discussion with teachers and students.
(D) Incorporating drug content, etc. with the existing curriculum, thus making every teacher responsible.
(E) Incorporating drug content, etc. in the social studies only.
(F) Other ideas: ______________________________
____

Reasons for above selection______________________________
____
____
____
____
____
____
____

VI. How would you rate your current knowledge for writing behavioral objectives?

____very adequate ____adequate ____limited

VII. In view of the goals of the project, what do you feel might be activities and/or approaches usuable during the two week summer session to accomplish these goals. Just give us some of your ideas. Don't evaluate them. Let us do that.

VIII. Are you familiar with the booklet: A Conceptual Framework for Social Studies in Wisconsin?

____I use it. ____I've read it. ____ I've seen it.

____I have heard of it. ____Never have used it. ____Never read it.

IX. The nature of social studies requires a broad base of skills. Skills must be taught and used where there is a functional purpose. What skills have your students learned this year? List five skills that you know they have learned.

1. ____________________

2. ____________________

3. ____________________

4. ____________________

5. ____________________

X. What would you say was the most innovative aspect of your social studies program?

XI. "Students today ... are demanding a curriculum pertinent to their own needs and concerns. They want to understand what's going on and what to do about it." What illustrations in your school can you give that support this statement?

SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING ANALYSIS CHART

Grade Level ________ School System ________ Subject (If not SS) ________

I. Outline the content you are now teaching.

II. What teaching strategies have you used this past week? In other words, how do you teach? Describe.

III. Outline the content you have completed since September.

IV. In general, which of the following best describes the approach to teaching social studies used in your school.

________ Textbook-centered
________ Problem-centered
________ Teacher-centered
________ Student-centered
________ A variety of approaches: Describe.

____
____
____
____
____

2

THE FISHBOWL DESIGN FOR DISCUSSION

Purpose

To help spread participation and increase each student's awareness of the parts he and others play in a discussion.

Setting

This exercise is suitable for students in grades 3 through 12. It can be carried out in 30 to 45 minutes in a class of as many as 30 students. Students are divided into an inner discussion group and an outer observing group.

Procedure

1. Before beginning the exercise, it is necessary for you to do some advance planning. Decide which planning tasks you should do and which can be shared with a planning committee. Choose four or five students for the committee. You and the committee of students must do five tasks before the scheduled discussion.

    a. Choose the topic for discussion. You might suggest several topics and let the students choose one. The only restrictions are that the topic should not call for, or result in, a decision by the class, and it should not be likely to embarrass any student.

    b. Decide what the teacher's role will be, if any.

    c. Decide who will give the instructions during the discussion and who will be the time-keeper. (Careful timing is important).

    d. Choose some simple method of dividing the class into groups. It is best to mix boys with girls, talkers with shy ones.

    e. Decide how to form the inner and outer circles. If the desks are immovable, have the students take seats so as to roughly form two circles.

2. Briefly explain the purpose of the exercise and how it will work. Divide the class into groups. (This should take five minutes). Members of the outer circle should listen and watch in silence. Their assignment is to count how many participated in the discussion; notice how many people look as if they wish to say something but don't; keep track of who gets interrupted and who does the interrupting.

3. The inner group begins its discussion while the outer group observes. Brief silences may occur, but ordinarily a member of the group will break the silence. When it seems as if no one has any more to say, the chairman may move to the next phase. (This should take 8 to 10 minutes.)

4. The timekeeper calls time on the discussion. The observers report on what they saw and heard, while the inner group listens silently. (This should take 5 to 7 minutes).

5. The groups reverse roles and repeat the process.

Analysis

Write these questions on the board:
What things hurt our discussion?
What things helped it?
Was it worthwhile to have this kind of discussion?

In summing up what helps and what hinders a discussion you might mention that discussion is better when we

- listen and build on what has been said before
- give others a chance and help those who seem to want to join in but don't do so
- accept other people's opinions as valid for them

Materials

Chalkboard

DIAGNOSING A CLASSROOM PROBLEM

Purpose

To move from creative thinking to creative action and to learn to become more effective problem solvers.

Setting

This exercise can be used in the upper-elementary grades and higher. (See Brainstorming Exercise.)

Procedure

1. As an introduction, begin a discussion of classroom problems. Help the class decide on a specific classroom problem for the exercise. Be careful to choose a problem which the class might have the power to solve. (Class size, for example, would be a poor problem situation to use.) State both the goal and the problem situation.

2. Draw this form on the board:

Problem Situation:

Goal:

Helping Forces	Holding Forces

3. Explain the diagram and ask the class to name the forces which go in either column. (You might explain the holding forces as those which hamper the solution of the problem and keep the problem a problem, and the helping forces as those which would lessen or remove the problem.)

4. Discuss both lists with the class. Have them determine which helping forces can be strengthened and which holding forces can be decreased by the class itself. Circle those forces which seem to be the most important and those which the class thinks it can affect constructively. Depending on the problem, there might be one specific force which stands out, or there might be two or three holding forces and two or three helping forces which are particularly important.

5. For each holding force you have circled, list some possible action steps which the class might carry out to reduce the effect of the force or to eliminate it completely. List as many action steps as possible without worrying about how effective or practical they would be. The class will have a chance later to decide which are the most appropriate. List as many action steps as possible which would increase the effect of each helping force.

6. Review the steps you have listed and circle those which seem promising.

7. List the steps you have circled. Then for each action step list the materials, people, and other resources which are available for carrying out the action.

8. Review the final list of action steps and resources and think about how they might each fit into a comprehensive action frame. Eliminate those items which do not seem to fit into the overall plan, and think about a possible sequence of action.

Analysis

Ask the following questions of the class:
What do you think of this way of working on a problem?
Do you feel that we are any closer to a solution?
Can you think of other situations-at home, in the community, at church, or within yourself-where this method might be used?

Materials

Chalkboard

Note

This exercise is adapted from force-field analysis, a method introduced by psychologist Kurt Lewin. See the NEA Journal for March 1968 and Today's Education, December 1968.

STOP-ACTION

Purpose

To help correct our tendency to become so absorbed in what we are doing that we fail to notice-and learn from-how we are doing it. The exercise helps students learn to be more effective group members and group leaders. It increases group creativity and can add to the learning and satisfaction gained from a group experience.

Setting

This exercise can be used in the upper-elementary grades or higher. It can be completed within a class period. You should provide large tables or floor space for drawing.

Procedure

1. You or a committee of students should choose in advance a subject to be symbolized graphically. Some suggestions: the school, the class, a real club, an imaginary "Teen-Age Society." The exercise can also be linked to a curriculum area by choosing as a topic a city, profession, or a particular school of thought in art or literature.

2. Divide the class into groups of five or six, and give each group a poster-size sheet of newsprint or wrapping paper and a few crayons or colored chalks.

3. Announce that each group will have 15 minutes to create a pictorial symbol of the chosen subject. Showing a few examples of symbols on flags, seals and coats of arms should be enough to get the class started.

4. When ten minutes have passed, stop the groups and tell them to take five minutes to analyze how they have been working. To guide the discussion, direct their attention to the following questions, which can be written on the chalkboard or on slips of paper prepared in advance:
   Is everyone in the group participating?
   Whose ideas are being carried out?
   How are things being decided?

5. When the five minutes of analysis are over, tell the groups to take five minutes to complete the project.

6. Stop the action again and have the groups discuss the same process questions for five minutes.

7. After posting the symbols around the room, bring the entire class together. Have each group explain its symbol and the way they worked to create it.

Analysis

After all groups have reported, hold a general discussion on "Looking at How We Work Together."

Questions such as these will help get the discussion started:

> Were you influenced during the second work period because you had stopped to consider how you were working? In what way? How might your group have improved the way it worked?

In the discussion, all points of view should be accepted as valid in order to demonstrate that every person experiences events differently. If time permits, each student can jot down a number from one to ten representing his degree of satisfaction with the way his group worked.

Materials

Poster-size sheet of newsprint or wrapping paper for each group
Crayons or colored chalks
Symbols on flags, seals, coats of arms, advertising

*We wish to acknowledge the excerpt contained in the introduction of this guide as having appeared in 'Changing Times, May, 1971.'

GLOSSARY

Triads - A group composed of three people listening to each other with comprehension as opposed to merely hearing words.

Anomie - Absence of social norms for the regulation and evaluation of individual conduct.

Dyadic or Dyads - referring to two people in an exercise.

Brainstorming - A verbal technique used for effective problem solving by building on one's own and others' creative abilities.

Empathy - Feeling another's condition or state of mind without actually experiencing the feelings of the other.

Introspection - The process of taking a closer look at one's self from an objective viewpoint (this might include feedback from the group).

Impose - In dealing with values, this is the technique which calls for telling people what their values should be.

Expose - In dealing with values, this is the technique which allows a person to explain the "what" and "why" of his own values, but does not insist that others assume the same values.

Depose - In dealing with values, this is the technique which calls for destroying other people's values.

Feedback - Communication to a person (or a group) which gives that person information about how he affects others.

Methophores - Describing the way something appears to you by comparing it with another object.

Group Testing - Having a group of people work together on a test with resource materials at hand to facilitate the learning process.

Non-directive Teaching - Stating the objective to be met in a class session and let the class decide how to accomplish this objective.

Self-Disclosure - The Process of identifying the major assets and liabilities of your personality.

Valuing - A systematic process of choosing between alternative values.

Synthesis - The process of taking portions of something we know and making it something we want it to be. An example is the way we use previous experiences to build perceptions of other people.